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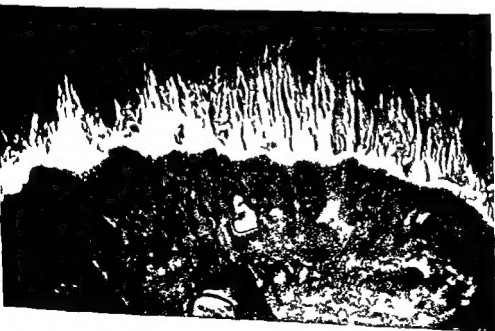


# *of Science and Technology*

AN INTERNATIONAL REFERENCE WORK

IN FIFTEEN VOLUMES INCLUDING AN INDEX

VOLUME 10 PER PROG



(LEFT) Photomicrograph of copper sulphate and calcium carbonate crystals (L. C. Massopoli) (RIGHT) A macroscopic explanation of chemical forces (photograph by R. V. Hanson)

McGraw Hill Encyclopedia of Science and Technology  
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# Suggestions to the Readers

The ba pl f th Ency l p d e plain d  
h re i o d to fa litat t

Th bje t nate f th r us di c pl ne or  
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**Earth sciences**

**Earth tides**

**Earthmover**

**Earthquake**

A w r d e d a n p r e c d e the m e w o d u e d  
d y e t a l l t l u

**Mercury (element)**

**Mercury (planet)**

**Mercury battery**

**Circuit electronic**

**Circuit breaker**

H y p h e n e d t e m r l p h b e t z d a l w o d  
f o m p l e

**Animal virus**

**Animal feed composition**

M o t f th l o r a t l o t a n t l b y r p h i e  
t p u t l o r e o f f t l e i n f r m a t i f r  
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e f r t l i d t l (a s i n d c a t e d b t h c o s  
e f e i n t h a t l ) B b l p l s e p l a e d  
a t the n d o f a r t l e o n t i m a t t l n d f  
m j t s n l n g r t l

A l t t i n t a l n d m o f t h n i l u t t o  
the En l p i s t o b f o u n d n v o l u m e 15 T  
l t w h p e m t p u l s e n t h t f n t b t  
t l a f t a r t l e I m m l a t l y f f l o w n t h  
l t c n d l t o f v e l p e d n t l u t o r w t h  
t l f l a t a f t h t l f t l l e a h t  
w t t f th E n v l p e d a



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# PER *Peracarida to Progression (mathematics)*

## Peracarida

A up r rder of the cla Cru t cea ubelas Mala tra a. Comm n sample of the ord r are the po m hr mp quat c ow b g and desw m r The l e a r d lud the rd s Amph pod C ma e l op da My dac a Spelae gra plac a d Ta d cea The e orders sh re a num b f hara ters the m t notable b ng th t the y ung d elop within th rac c mar up m wh ch th yle e a a late stag l de l pment Th ma up um i form d b y ft m l 7 memb anous osteo ge wh ch e t nd i w rd f om th i xopod t i the th r l g s Th egg d el p ng y gle fee nth p e between the entral urf e f the th x nd the r l p ng i g t s Mem s of th d Therm b nacea h a d s l mar p um f med by the p i r o p r t f the r p eq tly they are ex lud d fr m th i r a d by m a th r ties

Oth fatures wh h d t ng h th Per arid l m th g p f M l i r e a e the f l l n g Tt p i s p d te of the e d ant nna u ally n t f i th e gment The tho c leg e fl ed h t e th f i sh and xth g m t The h a r t i g n all log te e t d ng th u h th g t p t f i th tho a i r g n the i op d t r m v at d t i n t ly n th l d m n wh e eep at y h nge o e ur Spe mat zo ll fl f r m n t a t t h i ph e l r ex l r f m th Eu d a d H pl d

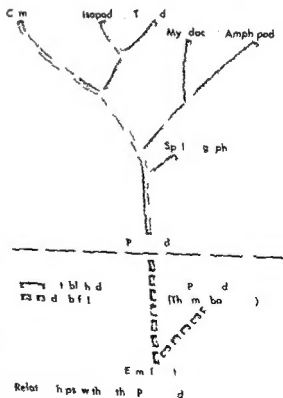
**Morphology** A n th r Mal o t a the th r t f i ght m t the fir t f wh ch f ed with th h d A r p pre nt n ll d h t d Amph pod a d l op d but it d n a l e e with m than f ur th r a i s m t f l l e e g m t n the Spelaeo f h a tw n th Tan id ce n t fo th M d d th i r the C ma

Ep pod tes a p i n the ma l l p ds of the rd h g a p r d th m m n t ke p t f w i f l g l the i s r f a f th a ap l n th mysid ubord My da th n n r f e h ght a l nd g a eou e h ng takes pl th i ght M mb f the m y d b e d l g b g t e d a h a p i pod l g l n th th l g a nd i the m th m l l ped a l p pod te f r m a ompl g l l Th w opod ha fl i r ned p pod t n the m l l ped b i the app n l n i b a h l l th f m l e f some g ap f pod a l p p t f th eox pod t of th m x l l ped p ject b k w d d i g th with th p pod te nd an x

pan i n of the b i podate forms a lamellar plat y br to y m vements f the ma l l ped ncluding th i pl t end a c r r n t f water through the m r up i m wh i h aerates the develop ing embry Re p i a t n n s p ds takes place thro gl the ur fa e f the pl pod In the amph pods g a eous ex h a g e c c s in the ep pod i gill attached to the i ner r f a c s of the th racic leg There is no p podite n t l e max fliped

Re p i a t y epip d tes a e f und only in the Sp l o g i phacea wh e they are pre ent n the f i th to e enth thorac le s

The thor x i f l owed by an abdomen of six segments b a r ng up t f i e p a r s of biramo i s m m a g legs or ple pods On the t r m i l gment the e s a pair f uropod wh i t g e t h r with the tel on fo m a t i f n Th i leop d s a r ab ent in all female and s me male c mac ans In female t na dacean they m y be redu ed r abs nt and th y may be u d i m n tary in female my d s In amph pod the b d m n al appendage r e harply d ded into tw g o p the three enter r p i s a e t u r n d f r w d and n a t a r y while the la t thre all e l l e d ur p i a e t u r e d b a c k w a d A





mentioned before some or all of the pleopods in the isopods function as gills and the surfaces may be plicated to increase the respiratory area. One of the anterior pairs of pleopods or in the suborder Valvifera the uropods may be modified into an operculum protecting the delicate respiratory pleopods. In some mysids and isopods one or two pairs of pleopods are modified in the males to assist in the transfer of sperm to the female.

**Relationships among Peracarida.** The Peracarida can be divided into two groups. The probable relationships are shown in the illustration. Some of the characters on which these relationships are based are presented.

The embryo in the Amphipoda is bent ventrad and lies with the dorsal side toward the outside of the egg. The position is reversed in the cumaceans, tanaids, isopods, and mysids. Cumaceans isopods and perhaps tanaids leave the egg with the eighth thoracic leg absent. Mysids and amphipods hatch with all their appendages.

Between broods, females of cumaceans and some isopods lose their oostegites. In mysids and amphipods the oostegites are retained during this period.

The lophogastrid mysids have antennal and maxillary nephridia; the latter being small. Cumaceans, tanaids, and isopods have maxillary nephridia, while amphipods and the mysids other than lophogastrids have antennal nephridia.

Other criteria, mainly details of the anatomy of the digestive tract, have been treated by R. Siewing [75].

**Bibliography.** W. Kuwenthal and T. Krumbach (eds.), *Handbuch der Zoologie*, vol. 3, no. 6, 1927. R. Lankester (ed.), *A Treatise on Zoology*, pt. VII, fasc. 3, 1909. R. Siewing, "Besteht eine enge Verwandtschaft zwischen Isopoden und Amphipoden?" *Zool. Anz.* 47(7-8): 166-180, 1951. R. Siewing, "Untersuchungen zur Morphologie der Malacostraca (Crustacea)." *Zool. Jahrb. Abt. Anat. u. Ontog. Tiere* 75: 39-176, 1956.

## Perception

The process by which an individual is acquainted with his immediate surroundings. It can be defined by such behavior as looking, listening, and touching or otherwise reacting with discrimination to the objects and events of the environment. For the human animal it can also be defined in terms of precise verbal activities such as naming, describing, comparing, and distinguishing objects. Finally, inasmuch as it seems to be possible for the human observer to note the process of perception as it occurs in himself, it can be defined as awareness of the external world or consciousness or experience of it.

However defined, perceiving is distinguished from remembering, which refers to past events; from expecting, which refers to future events; and from imagining, which refers to absent or nonexistent states of affairs. But in no case can the distinctions be sharply drawn, since the present environment in time and space cannot in fact be divided

from either the past, the future, or the distant environment by any sharp line of demarcation.

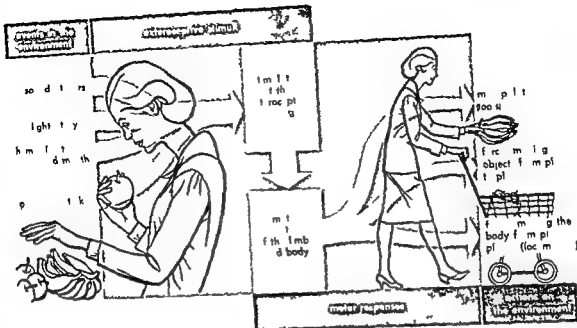
Now is not a single instant of time, and here is not a single point of space. There is a considerable span of perception in time and a considerable range of perception in space. Hence perceiving is not clearly separable from knowing in the general sense of the term. This discussion is concerned primarily with perception and only secondarily with apprehension.

Acquaintance with the environment is obviously dependent on the senses, and therefore the study of the perceptual process is inseparable from the study of the sensory processes (see SENSATION). As John Locke put it, knowledge comes through the senses and from no other source. To believe on the contrary, in a mysterious process of intuition or in the efficacy of innate ideas or the power of pure reason has never been popular in Western scientific thought.

Specifically, this means that perceiving depends on the stimulating of receptive mechanisms such as the eye, ear, or the skin of an individual by energy in the surrounding environment. The kinds of energy to which human beings and animals are sensitive are light, heat, sound, chemical energy, mechanical force, and gravitational force. The energy at a sense organ is called the proximal stimulus; the source of light, sound, odor, or mechanical pressure is sometimes called the distal or distant stimulus. Usually a distal object or event causes the stimulation of several sense organs at the same time, and the contemporary modes of stimulation combine to form a single percept. A fire is seen, heard, smelled, and its warmth is felt. Usually there is more than enough sensory input to yield a percept. But when stimulation of one channel fails for any reason, perception depends on those remaining, and when stimulation of all channels is eliminated, perception ceases.

Perception thus depends on events at several successive stages: the external situation; the energy at the receptors; the excitation of the receptors; the transmission of neural impulses; and complex processes in the brain which make possible both perception and behavior. If the chain of events is interrupted at any stage, the whole channel stops functioning. For example, vision will fail if (1) there is nothing to see as with an observer floating in empty space; (2) there is no illumination as in pitch darkness; (3) the light entering an eye is diffused as with spectacles of ground glass; (4) the light entering an eye is interrupted as when the eyelids are closed; (5) the eye becomes opaque as with cataract; (6) the retina is damaged as in glaucoma; (7) the optic nerve is cut; or (8) the area of the brain to which it leads is destroyed. In any of these cases a man will be effectively blinded. See VISION.

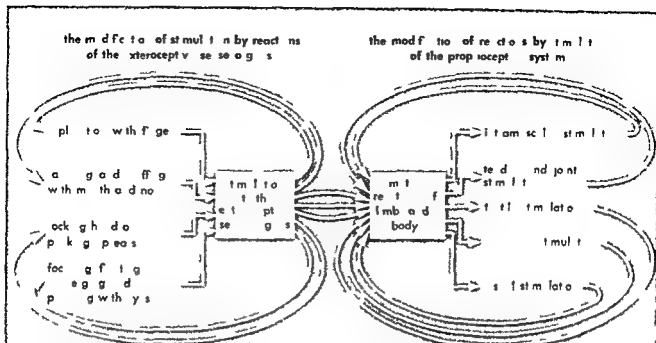
**As an exploratory process.** Perceiving differs from sensing as this term is traditionally used, i.e., being an act, rather than a passive or merely receptive process. Introspectively, it is character-



Th t c l i m l p f m l S t m l p o n d t h p o d e d b y g o p o e o f t h e m u c u  
d d b y r p f t t t c t b t h t f  
p o d d b y p l o t r y p f e s e g

ed by what s c l d s l e c t e a l l n t o o n  
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h a r a l l y t l w s v l a t h e r y l a s t .  
me kind of adju t m e t f i t h e e n s e o g n  
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e p e r n n e k n a t i e p r o o f  
t u h n g a t h r t h a n a p a i n e o f b e g i o u h d  
T t s t e d m e l l o l e a i n g a d m i s s i n g E n  
h a n g l a d t h l i t e n g t p n e s a s a s s i e  
e o l l z g t h r d n g b y t T h c h i o f  
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t t h h d t h e r e b y s t m l t l d s t o d  
j u t m n t p d n g m m s t m u l t i T h e r e i s  
p e e t b a l o g y w i t h e l e c t o n c s y t e m a  
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l i b e t h e f n c t o o f m a k n g s t i m l i n o p t i m l  
f p e p t T h e f c u g o f t h e e t i a l i m a g e  
r e g t e d e t a i l n d t h e e x p l a n a t i o n o f t h e a m b i e t  
l i g h t r e g t e a w h o l e s e t i d e t l F u s i n g a n d  
p l o r a t i o n e c c a r y f o t h e a c r a t e p e r c e p  
t i o n o f o e s s r o u d g T h e p r c e r s e h e s  
t h a r r a y l i g h t f o r m e a n g f u l s h a p e s i n t h e o  
l l p u r n  
T h u m l f a n t e e e o g a s d s  
t g h e d f m t h s t m l f r r e c e p t r l l f  
t h r g n t n f p a i r n o f n g y a n d e  
q e o f p u r m T h e a e t h e e l e v t t m u l t  
f p e p t A l l e c t n f c e l l t h r t n a  
d t h o c h l a e s u e t t h e m p l e b l e s  
f r q e y a d i t t y T h e r t a s s p e c l i d  
f t l i g h t e y g d t h o c h l e f r a o d e e g y  
B t a f t h b o d y t h e s a d t h a r s t

n t i e t o p t e r n s a n d t r a n s t o n s o f f r e q u e n c y  
a d i n t e n s i t y t h e a r y o f l i g h t a n d n t h e f l u x o f  
o u d T h e m o a c f r e c e p t o r s i n t h e r t u n a o r t h e  
o c h l e a n b e e c i t e d i e n r m o s l y c m p l c t e d  
o m b n a t o n s o f d j a e n t a n d s u c s s e v o d e r A c  
r d i g l y t h e e y e a n d t h e e a r s t o t a l s y s t e m s c a n  
e s p o d t t h e c o m p l x a r i a b l e s o f p a t t e r n a n d  
e q e c e t t h e t o t a l t m u l a t i n g s t u a t n  
C o n s i d r n g t h e a c t s f l o o k n g l s t n i n g f e e l  
i n g m e l l n g n d t s t n g a s s e t i r e p n s s i t  
b e c o m e i d e n t t h a t t h e r e i s a l w a y s m o m p o t e n t a l  
s t m l u i r m t u n a t t h e u r f a c e f n d i d u l  
a t a n y g e n t i m e t h n t h e c n p o s i t i l y h a n d l e  
M r e o r t h r e a l w a y s m r e p o t n t a l s e q  
u e n c e f t m u l a t i n n t h a n t h e n e o r t h f e w h e  
n h o o e s o x p l m T h e e n r o m t t t b e r e  
g r d s n s x h a t b l e r e e r o i r o f p o t e n t a l  
t m u l T h p e e p t u a l p r e s s i s o n e o f e l c t i n g  
a n d p r u n g t h o e w h c h a r i m p o r t a n t f o r t h  
i n d v d u l P r c p t i o n i m t u a t e d b y i t e t t h a t  
b y g i l n t c u r i t y i t s a i m i s t h e r e g i s t r a t n  
a n d c l i f i c a t i o n o f o b j e c t s e f t s B u t o b v i o u s l y  
d i f f e r e n t f a c t s a r e i m p o r t a n t f o r d i f f e r e n t i d  
u a l s o f o t h e s a m e n d d u l a t d i f f e r e n t t m e s  
P e r c e p t i o n d e p e n d s o n w h a t t h e p r c e i e r s i n  
t e r e t d  
A s a p r o c e s s o f m o n i t o r i n g b e h a v i o r A l  
t h o g h p e e r g m t r a d i t i o n a l l y d e f i n d a s a c  
q u i t n g t h e n d d a l w t h h a e n i n m e t t  
l i q a s t t h e i n d i d a l w t h h i w n a c t i o n  
I t h a i t h e w o d o f C S S h r i n g t h n t h f m u  
t t h t y p c h l i g t p p r i o c p t  
f u n t o a w e l l a n e t r e c e p t u e f n c t n w h e n  
r t h e d i d u l g a g d s a n y k i n d f b e  
t b y n d m r e o n t i m p l a t i o n o f t h n v i o n  
m e t I n d i t u t t h e s o y h a n l s s o f a



The feedback loops of exteroceptive and those for controlling behavior

The angular lines represent physical actions; the curved lines represent eulactions

considered there is the kinesthetic. This is served by various kind of receptors in the muscles, tendons and joints, and by still others in the inner ear (see KINESTHETIC SENSATION). Conceived broadly the sensitivity of an individual to the behavior in which he is engaged is much more than a single sense. It includes all stimulation produced by responses and this extends at least to touch and vision. When handling things or walking about a man feels his activity by the changing pressures on the skin and he sees it by the changing patterns at the eye. He even hears it by the noises at the ear unless he is careful to be silent during manipulation or locomotion. There are many channels for this feedback from response. Some of the stimuli being inside the kin of the organism and some being outside but all of the circular loops have a common function: they keep the individual informed about the outcome of his muscular movements and about the progress of his action. They also serve to guide or control behavior inasmuch as they define the terminal act of a course of action and indicate the degree to which it has not yet been reached (see CYBERNETICS).

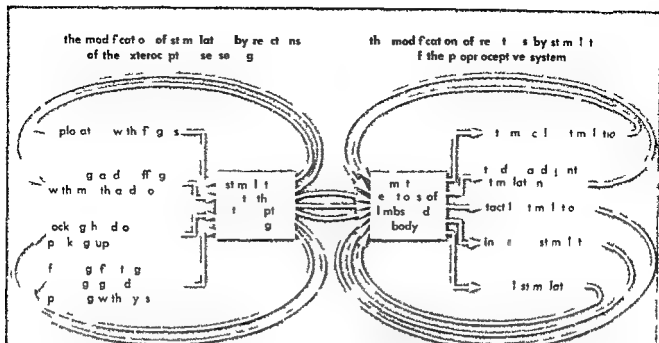
The kind of perception which is produced by action is not as familiar as the kind which is produced by the environment as such. It is harder to investigate and it is only beginning to be understood. But obviously the two kinds must be interlinked. In locomotion for example an animal needs to perceive both that he is moving through his environment and also where he is going and how close he is to his goal. For this he must be able to perceive the layout of his environment. The visual control of locomotion is therefore not separable from the visual perception of space. A walking man has to be able to feel and see himself moving and at the same time to feel and see the motionless ground

beneath his feet. This necessity raises the question of the so-called constancy of environmental perception which will be discussed later.

**Relationship to the motivating of behavior.** If the perceptual process acquaints the individual with his own actions as well as with the environment the question may be asked whether it also informs him of his own inner needs and of those outer objects which afford satisfactions of his need. Does perceiving motivate action as well as being itself a kind of motivated act? Such question raise difficult theoretical issues. To some extent an animal or a man can discriminate among or perceive his own biological need (see HUNGER, PAIN, OFF, THIRST). Likewise an animal or a man can identify food, mate, helper and other objects of his environment as beneficial or noxious with considerable success. But the relation of the ediparact to the motivation of behavior is a controversial question (see MOTIVATION). A man who comes across a rattlesnake in his path perceives and feels and acts all at the same time and the psychologist arbitrarily separates the process of feeling.

Introspectively perceptions seem to have a subjective reference as well as an objective reference but some have much more than other. In a painful experience the subjective pain dominates whereas in a visual experience the object dominates. But even in visual perception there is the implicit sense of here and in auditory perception there is the awareness of now. However objectively oriented one experience of the world may be there lurk in the background a variety of tensions: feeling, emotion, the image of the body and the consciousness of self. Philosophers and psychologists have long recognized the importance of the ediparact. But they are not equally put to a rigorous test and are given little emphasis in a scientific psychology.





The feedback loops for exploring a changing external stimulation and those for controlling behavior

The angular lines represent physical actions the curved lines represent mental actions

considered there is the kinesthetic. This is served by various kind of receptors in the muscles, tendons and joints and by still others in the inner ear (see KINESTHETIC SENSATION). Conceivably the sensitivity of an individual to the behavior in which he is engaged is much more than a single sense. It includes all stimulation produced by responses and this extends at least to touch and vision. When handling things or walking about a man feels his activity by the changing pressures on the skin and he sees it by the changing patterns at the eye. He even hears it by the noises at the ear unless he is careful to be silent during manipulation or locomotion. There are many channels for this feedback from response; some of the stimuli being inside the kin of the organism and some being outside. But all of the circular loops have a common function: they keep the individual informed about the outcome of his muscular movements and about the progress of his action. They also serve to guide or control behavior inasmuch as they define the terminal act of a course of action and indicate the degree to which it has not yet been reached (see CYBERNETICS).

The kind of perception which is produced by action is not as familiar as the kind which is produced by the environment as such. It is harder to investigate and it is only beginning to be understood. But obviously the two kinds must be interlocked. In locomotion, for example, an animal needs to perceive both that he is moving through his environment and also where he is going and how close he is to his goal. For this he must be able to perceive the layout of his environment. The visual control of locomotion therefore is not separable from the visual perception of space. A walking man has to be able to feel and see himself moving and at the same time to feel and see the motionless ground

beneath his feet. This necessarily raises the question of the so-called constancy of environmental perception which will be discussed later.

**Relationship to the motivating of behavior.** If the perceptual process acquaints the individual with his own actions as well as with the environment, the question may be asked whether it also informs him of his own inner needs and of the outer objects which afford satisfactions of his needs. Does perceiving motivate action as well as being itself a kind of motivated act? Such questions raise difficult theoretical issues. To some extent an animal or a man can discriminate among or perceive his own biological needs (see HUNGER, PAIN, DEEP THIRST). Likewise an animal or a man can identify food, mate, shelter and other objects of his environment as beneficial or noxious with considerable success. But the relation of these disparate facts to the motivation of behavior is a controversial question (see MOTIVATION). A man who comes across a rattlesnake in his path perceives and feels and acts all at the same time and the psychological analysis of the separation of the experience fails.

Introspectively, percepts seem to have a subjective reference as well as an objective reference, but some have much more than others. In a painful experience the subject's pain dominates; whereas in a visual experience the object dominates. But even in visual perception there is the implicit sense of here and in auditory perception there is the awareness of now. However, objectively oriented ones' experience of the world may be there lurking in the background a variety of tension, feeling, emotion, the image of the body and the consciousness of self. Philosophers and psychologists have long recognized the importance of the subjective factor. But they are not easily permitted to experimentally demonstrate a little emphasis in contemporary psychology.

Guessing supposing or surmising. Con id r  
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arises from tw theor t i a sumpt n fir t that  
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d tly it Ma f gn w rd a n t he rd as  
be ng diff e t f m ne another a d novel pat  
tern d n t look diff e nt nles they r put close  
t the a d c mpar d f l y gr o f m l a d i f  
t n es re noted The no ce at u ng micro-  
p m t l arn what t look f a d h w per  
th bal t f e l nd tru t re i the  
slide of t su nde am at W th h  
t m l i h wev r gues ng g s way t ex t per  
pu sp at b r v t one t ues  
Ob A d d n p t t s f th g s A th  
med l m oles kn w the nt r p e t n of  
x y ph t graph th di gn of red ea es  
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f pe ept i k ll but it may al l i due t the  
ntrn po rt of th f r m t n lable n  
en v o r i m lat n H wev r cti ly h r hes  
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Exp rim t lly impo r s h d at m l n s h ha  
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ppl ed do s not eem t determ ne the response  
m d f th l a n u b j t t o t h r n l u e c e s  
A g r e t v a e t y f such i l u e c e s h a b n stud ed  
n the f f o t to g t at th n t u e f the perc ptu l

process when it is not strictly bound to the stimulus. The influence of verbal suggestion on perception has been demonstrated as well as an influence of past experience on perception, an influence of emotional prejudice on perception, an influence of cultural background on perception, and the like. But it should be noted that the more demonstrably perception is influenced by these factors the less it is like discerning and the more it is like guessing.

The nature of the subjective component in apprehension, whether the enrichment of stimuli or the organization of stimuli or something else is not clear. Theories of the process are a matter of active dispute in psychology. The classical theories of the process have been described by E. G. Boring, the major historian of scientific psychology, and contemporary theories are represented by the authors listed in the bibliography. A consideration of these theories is not given here because such theories can have no firm basis until the extent that ordinary perception is a direct function of the variables of pattern stimulation is known. For that knowledge, other methods of investigation must be used.

#### METHODOLOGY OF PERCEPTION

**Methods of studying sense perception.** The best way to investigate the perceptual process is to induce it artificially, that is, to construct an apparatus which will deliver to an individual the necessary stimulation. The experimenter then has to vary this stimulus in such a way as to obtain from the individual reports, judgments, or discriminative reactions which are a function of the variations. This is the psychophysical procedure by which sensory reactions are studied. See PSYCHOPHYSICAL METHODS.

When perceptions are studied, the procedure differs in that the stimulus must be a pattern or sequence of light, sound, pressure, or the like. This requirement puts a strain on the ingenuity of the experimenter, for the systematic variation of pattern or sequence is not easy, and the artificial production of stimuli which imitate those of the natural world is an elaborate and sometimes expensive process. It is not surprising, therefore, that in most of the existing experiments on visual perception the patterns of light are those which can be reflected from line drawings, pictures, or nonsense forms. The experimental work of the Gestalt psychologists is largely based on stimulus material of this sort. There is an increasing tendency, however, for experimenters to manipulate and control the variables of patterned light as is evidenced by the current interest in optical texture. For example, the perception of a solid surface can be induced where no solid surface exists by an optical arrangement in which the light entering the eyes of an observer is patterned with a sufficient degree of density (J. J. Gibson et al., 1955).

Picture motion pictures and binocular stereoscopic motion pictures are ways of approximating the natural input of the eye to an increasing de-

gree. But the resulting perceptions lack the ultimate degree of realism because the pictures usually represent only a small sector of an environment. Method of reproducing more of the total optic array have been devised, however, in the form of simulators for the purpose of military training. The visual input of a helicopter pilot or a tank driver can be imitated by wide screen projection methods. Moreover, the motions in this field can be made to depend exactly on the control reactions of the driver or the pilot in a mock-up of the situation so that the visual feedback acquaints him with what it is like to control the vehicle. The panoramic motion picture, the Cinerama, provides an optical array which more nearly approaches that of a real environment. Such presentation is statically varied and guided by theory, promising to solve many of the problems of visual perception.

For the study of auditory perception, the artificial production of pattern and sequence is not so difficult as for visual. The input to the ears is easier to control than the input to the eyes. Recent advances in electronic and mechanical devices enable the experimenter to manipulate air vibrations in the physically complex ways that are characteristic of informative sounds. Not only can natural sounds be recorded and reproduced with fidelity, they can also be produced to order. Speech sound, for example, can be synthesized. From this it is only a step to the psychophysics of speech perception.

When animal or young children are used as subjects in perception experiment, the experimenter must be content with behavioral discrimination. Verbal discrimination and description by a human adult provide somewhat more direct and subtle evidence of the perceptual process. But the method are fundamentally the same in that they concern the establishing the dependence of response on stimulus.

The controllable types of stimulation for the experimental study of perception depend on the kind of energy to which the external receptor will respond, whether optical, acoustic, thermal, chemical, or mechanical. Example of uncontrollable stimuli are the force of gravity, the light entering the inner ear, which cannot now be experimentally eliminated, and the stimuli originating within the body, which cannot be experimentally controlled. If a pattern and sequence of stimulation which ordinarily arises from a real object or event is applied to the sense organs by an experimenter, the object or event will be perceived as if real, and with all its richness of meaning. If the variables of adjacent and successive order in the stimulus are manipulated, the phenomenal object will vary correspondingly. There is no difference in the repetition of the distance receptors and the contact receptors, that is, for example, between the feeling of an object by light at the eye and the feeling of an object by contact at the hand. Both light and mechanical impact ordinarily carry information about the differences in the environment, although they differ in information. The ability to apprehend





why objects stay constant in perception but also of why the ground does

Although various roundabout answers can be made to this query the simplest is that there are both variant and invariant properties of optical stimulation under transformation and that the invariants are the stimuli for the perception of invariant objects that is permanent and rigid one. For example the kind of texture that a surface possesses remains invariant; rectilinearity remains invariant and such properties as triangularity or quadrangularity remain invariant. The variant or changing properties of the continuous transformation on the other hand are stimuli for the perception of locomotion. On occasion one may get the impression of a nonrigid or quasielastic environment during locomotion but this is a secondary not a primary phenomenon. The above answer would explain how an individual can perceive the permanent layout of the environment and perceive himself moving through it both at the same time.

The invariants in an array of light which specify the color of a surface despite changes in the illumination of the whole layout of surfaces are not yet fully understood but there are a number of relational magnitudes which might serve and progress is being made in discovering them.

If the momentary retinal pictures shifting with every new fixation of the eyes are taken to be the stimuli for vision as physiologists assume the fact of permanence in perception borders on the miraculous. The situation is clarified when it is realized that retinal images are not stimuli but incidents in the exploratory activity of the eye which function to register the ambient light at a given location. There is a sequence of overlapping images to be sure for the exploration must operate overtime but the particular sequence is largely irrelevant. The stimulus for the visual system is focale light and this is stable and permanent for the given location. The situation is not unlike that of exploratory touch with the hand and fingers moving over the edge of an object. The changing pressure pattern on the skin appears to be wholly incoherent and indeed this sequence may never be twice the same. But the invariant features of the transforming pressure patterns are perfectly coherent and the edges are registered. They specify the permanent shape of the object.

**Changes and events.** Within the permanent environment described above there may be moving objects and their motion may be either rigid or nonrigid. Substances in the solid state generally move without deformation in accordance with mechanical liquid and gaseous (stream cloud fire) generally undergo deformation. The motions of animals including the expressive movement of human beings are of the latter sort. Both types and many subvarieties of such movement are distinguished by vision. The projected motions which present themselves to an eye are all geometrical transformations. With this as a basis the question

is how the rigid motions of objects can be distinguished from the elastic changes. Putting the question differently why are the perceptive of the same object not confused with the change that would transform an object into a different one? The answer may be that the transformations in question belong to different groups and that the eye registers the difference. In fact both human and animal eyes seem to be very sensitive to the types and parameters of geometrical transformation.

When a door opens the optical rectangle becomes a trapezoid but the door is seen as rigid and turning. The variant component of the stimulus yields change of latent the invariant component yields rigidity or constant shape. When an arm is elongated itself the same invariants are not present elasticity or changing shape is seen.

The perception of even more complex events of the natural environment such as the collision of two solid objects is beginning to be studied. The optical stimulus for the impression of one thing moving another can be isolated and as A. Michotte (1954) has demonstrated the experience is more simple and direct than might be anticipated.

**Persons and the cultural environment.** In addition to the environment of posture locomotion and manipulation there is the complex environment of social behavior. Not only solid objects but social objects are perceived. Other individuals and their actions including facial expression gesture speech writing pictures music and symbols are all sources of visual and auditory stimulation. This is the area in which a great deal of research in perception has been concentrated because the stimuli and the corresponding perceptions preoccupy human life. But this is also where the perceptual process becomes most complicated and least direct. The pattern and sequence of the stimulus cease to be geometrically related to it; object or event and begins to be arbitrarily related to it only by social agreement. The optical form and acoustic sound begin to be coded that is to have meaning by convention rather than by isomorphic relation. Signal or symbol will induce correct perception but only if the perceiver has been educated in the social group which uses them.

The perception of persons may be fairly direct as are the perceptions of environmental action like attack but the perception of their words is indirect. The understanding of language is in parallel with the producing of language that is to communicating. For the child making speech sounds or written marks part of perceiving them must be learned the spoken word along with the perception of speech and writing along with reading. The child thus learns to evoke perceptions in another individual as well as to have perceptions. Communication is usually circular and there is a feedback loop through other individuals in the kinesthetic auditory and visual loop of stimulation. The ability to respond to the stimuli of one's own scalar or graphic behavior in the

as as th s do is bas c t human kn wledge a d thought When the hild le m t per i e th ngs n ooper t n with others th percept l pnce s aches h gher tage than before

Th e are many refer ces in th ci tifi lit ra ture of experimental work on the perc ption of graph c mater al that i line drawi g pi tu ymb l a d en e forms But ths w rk is h rd t i te pret becau e t m u l s m t r i l e a r i e s a m t u o f i n t r i n s i c m e a n i n g a n d c o d e d m e a n i n g v i a l f r m o r l i n e d r a w i n g s h a v e a v a g e t a t u w h h l e o m w l e b e t w e n u b t a n t i a l b j t d y m b o l t r c i g o n a s u f a c E x p e r m e n t i n f o r m p e r c p t o n u f f r i m t h a m b i g u i t y t h e o b e r r e d t o p e r e b o t h s m r e p r e s e n t e d r l o b j e c t a n d t h e l t r a l m r k i n g n t h i r f e t h p p t b e i n a c o m p r o m e b t w e e n t h e m T h e l i g h t n t g t h e y e d i s n o t p e c i s e i t h r a f u l l b a t a n t a l u r f c e o r a f l y s y m b o l c a r t a c t b u t t h s s o m e f a t u r e o f b o t h

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B b l o p h y E G B i n g S a t o n a d P e p t i t h H a t y f E n n i m e t a l P y c h l g y 1952 E B u w i k T h e C e p t a l F m u k o f P s y h l o g y 1952 J J G i b s o n T h e P p t o o f t h l u I W l d 1950 J J G b n J P d y a n d L L a w r e A m e t h d f n t r l l m u l a t i o n f t h e i d y o f p e p r p t n t h e p t a l t u n l J E p i l P y h l 50 1 14 19 5 K K f l k a P p l s f G s t l t P y h i g y 1935 A M h u t f a P p t n d l a C u s a l u 2 d e d 19 4 M D V o n 4 F u t h S t u d y f V i s u a l P p t o n 19 4

## Perch

A t m w h h w h e n p e p e l y l m i d a p p l e s n l y t h e l l o w p r h P c f l a c s a d t s F u o p e n l i t s

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Th i r m p e h m m l y m s u e d F o e x a m p l t h r f i h i t q t l c a l l d r e d p h r



The y l w p e c h P f l a e e ; l e g h t 12 i ( f r m E L m l m e F o u l d b k o f N o t J H a t r y M G w H 11 1949 )

ocean perch th white bass or fresh water dr im a e l t n a l l e d w h i t e p e r c h a n d t h e g n r a l i s m p e r c h i u e d f r a n y f e c a l f r h w a t r a u n f i h e v p a r t i u l a r l y b l a c k p e r c h o r t h g r e e n u n f i h S e P e r c h o r a t e s [ J o n ]

## Perchlorate

A c m p o u d w h i c h c o n t a i n s c h l o r i n i n t h i t x d a t o n s t a t a n d w h i c h i d e r i e d f r m p e r h l r i c a d H C l O P r h l r a t e s a r e m r t a b l t h a n t h e l r a t e s c h l o r i t e s o r h y p o c h l r i t e s b u t a r e n e v e r c h e l e e c e l l e n t o x i d i z i n g a g e n t O n h e a t i n g p e r c h l r i t s d e c m p o e i n t o p o t a i m h l r d e K C l a n d o x g e n g e B e c a e o f t h e i r o x i d i z i n g p r p e r t e s p e r c h l o r a t e s f i n d u i e x p l e a n d a o x i d i a g e n t s i n t h e l a b o r a t o r y

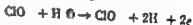
P o t u m p e r c h l o r a t e s c a n b e p r e p a r e d b y h a t i n g p o t a i m c h l r a t e



I n a d e r e a c t i o n o m e o x y g e n i s l i b e r a t e d



S o d i m p e r h l r i t s a l s o p r e p r e d c o m m e r c i a l l y b y a n e l e c t r o c h e m i c a l p r o c e S o d i m c h l o r a t e m a d e f r o m o d u m c h l r d e a d c h l r i n e i s t h e t a t u m m a t e r i l ( s e C H L O R A T E ) T h e o d i u m c h l o r i t e i s t h e n e l e c t r o l y z e d w i t h t h e n i r e c t o n a t t h e a n d e b e i g



S o d i m p e r h l o r i t e s t h e n c o e r t e d i p e c h l r a c i d t h r m t a l l c e s s i t S e C H L O R I N E H Y P O C H L O R I T E O X I D I Z I N G A G E N T [ E L W R ]

## Perciformes

The t y p a l p t y a y e d f i h s a l o k n w n b y t h e m u d n a l n a m e s A c a n t h o p t e r i n d P r c o m r p h T h s i t h e l a r g t r d e o f e r t b r a t e I t i n l d a d v s t y f s t t u a l t y p e w e l l a s o f z e f m a l n g l f l e t h n 34 t o a w e i g h t o f n e a r l y 1 t n T h c h a a c t e r o f t h e P e c i f o r m e i n c l u d e f i n s p i n w h i h a r u a l l y p r e n t a p e l i c f i n w h i c h i f p r e s e n t u s l y t h r a c r i g l a r i p o s i t h e p e l g a d l e u a l l y u a h e d t t h l t h a m e t m e s c o n n e c t d b y l g m e t s t h p l v i f i n u a l l y w i t h s p a n d 5 s o f t a v a t h e l t t e o c c i a l l y r e d u c d t h e p e c t r a l f i n b a e m r e o r i s s v e t a l u u l l y p l c e d w e l l u p

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Although various roundabout answer can be made to this query the simplest is that there are both variant and invariant properties of visual stimulation under transformation and that the invariant are the stimuli for the perception of invariant objects that is, permanent and rigid ones. For example, the kind of texture that a surface possesses remain invariant; rectilinearity remain invariant and such properties as triangularity or quadrangularity remain invariant. The variant or changing properties of the continuous transformation, on the other hand, are stimuli for the perception of locomotion. On occasion, one may get the impression of a nonrigid or quasielastic environment during locomotion, but this is a secondary not a primary phenomenon. The above answer would explain how an individual can perceive the permanent layout of the environment and perceive himself moving through it both at the same time.

The invariant, in an array of light which specifies the color of a surface despite changes in the illumination of the whole is one of surfaces are not yet fully understood, but there are a number of relational mechanisms which might serve, and progress is being made in discovering them.

If the momentary retinal pictures, bustling with every new fixation of the eyes, are taken to be the stimuli for vision, a why is locomotion a matter of permanence in perception border on the miraculous. The situation is clarified when it is realized that retinal images are not stimuli but incidents in the exploratory activity of the eyes, which function to register the ambient light at a given location. There is a sequence of overlapping images, to be sure, for the exploration must operate a lifetime, but the particular sequence is largely irrelevant. The stimulus for the visual system is focusable light, and this is stable and permanent for the given location. The situation is not unlike that of exploration with the hand and finger moving over the edges of an object. The changing pictures are patterns on the skin appear to be wholly incoherent and, indeed, the sequence may never be twice the same. But the invariant features of the transformation are perfect coherent and these specify the permanent shape of the object.

**Changes and events.** Within the permanent environment described above there may be moving objects, and their motion may be either rigid or nonrigid. Instances in the old tale generally move without deformation in accordance with mechanics. Liquid and gases (dream clouds, fire) generally undergo deformation. The motion of animals, including the expressive movements of human beings, are of the latter sort. Both types and many subvarieties of such movements are distinguished by motion. The projected motion which present them does to an eye are all geometrical transformations. With this as background, the question

is how the rigid motion of objects can be distinguished from the elastic changes. Putting the question differently, why are the perceptions of the same object not confused with the changes that would transmute an object into a different one. The answer may be that the transformations in question belong to different "groups," and that the eye registers the difference. In fact, both human and animal eyes seem to be very sensitive to the types and parameters of geometrical transformations.

When a door opens, the optical rectangle becomes a trapezoid but the door is seen as rigid and turning. The variant component of the stimulus would change if slant the invariant component would remain of constant shape. When an archer elongates an elf, the same in slant are not present elastic or changing happens.

The perception of even more complex events of the natural environment, such as the collision of two rigid objects, is beginning to be understood. The optical stimulus for the impression of one-joint-movement can be isolated, and a Michotte (1954) has demonstrated the experience is more simple and direct than might be anticipated.

**Persons and the cultural environment.** In addition to the environment of nonrelational motion and manipulation, there is the cultural environment of social behavior. Not only rigid objects, but also objects are perceived. Other individuals and their actions, including facial expressions, gestures, speech, writing, pictures, music, and symbols, are all sources of visual and auditory stimulation. This is the area in which a considerable amount of research in perception has been concentrated because these stimuli and the corresponding perception preoccupy human life. But this is also where the perceptual process becomes most complicated and least direct. The pattern and sequence of the stimulus may not be geometrically related to the object or event and begin to be arbitrarily related to it only by cultural agreement. The optical form and acoustic sound begin to be coded, that is, to have meaning in connection rather than by isomorphic relation. Signal or symbol will induce correct perception, but only if the perceiver has been educated in the latter up which uses them.

The perception of persons may be farthest, that is, the perception of even simple actions like attack but the perception of their words and of the understanding of language in particular related to the production of language that is to communication. For the child, making pictures and written marks a part of perception. Both must be learned, the spoken word along with the perception of speech, and writing along with reading. The child thus learns to make perception in another individual as well as to have perception in communication usually circular and there is a feedback loop through an individual level and the kinesic, i.e., auditory and visual ones of the stimulus. The latter respond to the production of one's own vocal or graphic behavior in the same

as before they become 10 or more years old and then after flowering the plants usually die. See A. UAL PLANTS BIENNIAL PLANTS PLANT

[PDS]

## Pericycle

The pericycle is commonly defined as the outer boundary of the stele (see STELE). Originally pericycle was interpreted as a band of cells between the phloem and the innermost layer (endodermis) of the cortex. Such pericycle is commonly found in root and a lower ascular plant also in stems. In higher vascular plants however a distinct layer of collenchyma is present between the phloem and the xylem. The homogeneous groups of fibers located on the outer boundary of the primary phloem in many stems are not pericycle in origin but developed from the outer part of the phloem where the metaxylem cells are obliterated. The pericycle is present in the cambium of the phloem or sclerenchyma cells with relatively thin or heavily thickened walls. It may be one to several layers in radial rows (Fig 1).

Primordia of both roots commonly arise in the pericycle. Needles of most equisetids outside the xylem ridges (Fig 2). The first cork cambium may also arise in the pericycle of those roots that

have secondary vascular tissues. In roots a part of the vascular cambium itself (that outside the primary xylem ridges) originates from pericycle cell. See CORTX PLANT ENDODERMIS MERISTEM LATERAL PARENCHYMA PHLOEM ROOT (BOTANY) SCLERENCHYMA STEM (BOTANY) XYLEM see also PLANT TISSUE SYSTEMS [VIC]

## Periderm

The protective tissue of stems and roots composed of the cork cambium (phellogen) and its derivatives cork (phellem) and phelloderm (parenchyma). Cork occurs on the outside of the phelloderm on the inside of the cork cambium (Fig 1). Periderm develops typically on woody roots and stems of dicotyledons and gymnosperms. Herbaraceous stems of monocotyledonous leaves and even fruits may likewise develop periderm although it may be limited in area and thickness. Some woody monocotyledons develop a periderm kind of periderm called in structure called a rind cork because of cell arrangement. Corky tissues of many herbaceous roots are really suberized cortex.

Origin of periderm. Typical periderm originates from or later mature primary tissues the cells of which sometimes meristematic activity. The divisions occur parallel with the surface of the organ that is in tangential planes. In roots the cork cambium usually arises in the pericycle and the subsequent formation of cork and the sloughing of the cortex. In stems any living tissue outside the vascular cambium may develop a cork cambium. Cells produced by the cambium toward the outside differentiate into cork as the cell walls become suberized and the protoplasm disintegrates. Some cork cells appear to be empty others contain resinous or tanniniferous ergastic substances. The phelloderm cells which are formed toward the inside remain alive and often resemble the parenchyma cells of cortex or phloem. Their radial alignment with the cork cambium and cork provides the evidence that they are part of the periderm. The phelloderm is sometimes called secondary cortex.

Lenticels are characteristic of many periderms (Fig 2). The structures are lens-shaped regions of periderm where the cork cambium divides more frequently than elsewhere and the derivative cells are not as compactly arranged as the cork cells. The lenticels may develop before the rest of the periderm. The cork cambium then spreads from the initial regions. The lenticular cells may or may not be suberized. All or part of the cells gradually separate from one another. In many plants layers of loosely arranged cells alternate with compact layers which are ruptured periodically by the production of more cells underneath. The cells in the alternating zones are called complementary cells and closing cells respectively. Functioally lenticels are dead tissue so that the periderm that all wou grow into ch g between the internal g on of the plant and the atmosphere. In this aspect, lenticel seems to be an exodermis epidermis of the tomato of the epidermis.

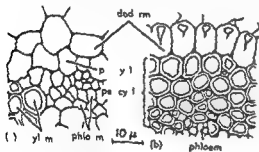


Fig 1 (a) Pericycle and phloem (b) Phloem and pericycle. Labels: pe cy l, phlo m, 10 μ.

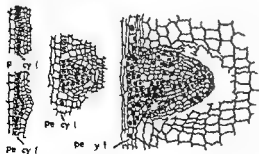


Fig 2 Vertical section showing lenticels. Labels: lenticel, pe cy l, 1953.



Yellow perch *Perca flavescens* (After G. B. Gode, *Geat Internat. of Fish. & Exh. Bio.* London 1883, U.S. Natl. Mus. Mem. 8, pl. 27)

on the side an upper jaw bordered largely or entirely by premaxillae orbito-phrenoid and meso-coracoid absent a swimbladder without a duct a posttemporal which is usually forked articulating to the skull scales usually ctenoid sometimes secondarily cycloid absent or variously modified caudal fin with 17 principal rays (15 branched) or fewer hyoid arch with 4 branchiostegal rays attached to the outer face of the epiphyal and ceratohyal above the prominent angle of the ceratohyal plus 1-4 rays usually 2-3 attached to the edge of the ceratohyal below the angle the number rarely further reduced

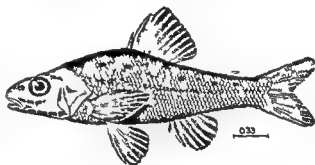
**Adaptive radiation** Perciform fishes dominate the modern vertebrate life of the oceans and have done so throughout the Cenozoic. The group first appeared in the Upper Cretaceous after which it underwent a rapid adaptive radiation many of the basic structural types as well as most major orders of perciform derivatives such as the Pleuronectiformes Tetraodontiformes and Lophiiformes were present in the Eocene. A few families of perciforms have been notably successful in fresh water the Cichlidae in Africa and South America the Centrarchidae in North America the Percidae in North America and Eurasia, the Anabantidae in south eastern Asia and many other families which have achieved limited success in invading fresh waters. Other families including the Chasmodontidae Brotulidae and Cyclopteridae have effectively adapted to life in the deep seas and still others such as the Scombridae Stromateidae and Coryphaenidae have become specialized for pelagic existence. It is in the shore areas the offshore banks the coral reefs the coastal beaches and lagoons and the intertidal zone however that the perciforms have attained their ultimate achievement. Here the enormous variety attests the adaptive effectiveness of the group. Because the knowledge of classification is still imperfect no accurate enumeration is yet possible but a rough tally indicates that the order contains 17 suborders about 137 families and nearly 1200 genera. These figures are conservative the number would be substantially increased by adopting the arrangement accepted by splitters. An estimate of the number of included species perhaps 8000 should be accepted merely

as a rough guess possibly in error by 25% or even more

**Economics** From an economic standpoint the Scombridae including the oceanic tunas and mackerels rank first among the perciforms. The Sciaenidae or drums the Serranidae or sea basses the Scorpaenidae or rockfishes the Carangidae or jacks the Cichlidae of tropical fresh waters the Percidae of temperate fresh waters and other groups support important commercial fisheries. Some of the and other families such as the Centrarchidae or sunfishes the Istiophoridae or sailfishes and marlins and the Pomatomidae or bluefishes are valued in sport fisheries and hence are of great recreational and indirect economic importance. See ACTINOPTERYGII FISHERIES CONSERVATION [RMB]

## Percopsiformes

A small order of actinopterygian fishes which is perhaps remotely related to the Beryciformes. The group is also known as the Salmopercae. Its characters include single ray supported dorsal and anal fins each with 1-4 anterior spines pelvic fin subabdominal in position with a minute spine and 7-8 soft rays pelvic girdle attached to the postcleithra upper jaw bordered by premaxillae no orbitosphenoid bone swimbladder without a duct and body covered with ctenoid scales.



Sand roller *Peropsifanmofana* (After D. S. Jordan and B. W. Evermann, *The Fishes of North and Middle America*, U.S. Natl. Mus. Bull. 47, 1900)

Two families two or three genera and three Recent species of North American fishes comprise the order. Eocene and Miocene fossils genera from North America are assigned to the group. The species attain a maximum length of 6 in. and inhabit sluggish or standing water. See ACTINOPTERYGII BERYCIFORMES [RMB]

## Perennial plants

Plants which live for more than two years. Tree and shrubs and many grasses and other herbaceous plants are perennial. During unfavorable seasons the aerial parts may die but the roots remain alive. Some perennial plants flower and seed during their first year and annually thereafter. Some such as the apple bear no flower until their fourth or fifth year but bloom each year thereafter. Other perennials as the agave bear no flower

before they become 10 or more years old and then after flowering the plants usually die. See ANNUAL PLANTS BIENNIAL PLANTS PLANT

[r d.s ]

## Pericyclic

The pericycle is commonly defined as the outer boundary of the stele (see STELE). Originally pericycle was interpreted as a band of cells between the phloem and the innermost layer (endodermis) of the cortex. Such pericycle is commonly found in roots of dicotyledonous plants also in stem. In higher angiosperms, however, a distinct layer of cell may not be present between the phloem and the cortex. The homologous groups of fibers located on the outer boundary of the primary phloem in many stems are not pericycle in origin but develop in the least part of the phloem which remains as cells are obliterated. The pericycle if present may be composed of parenchyma or sclerenchyma cells which are relatively thin or heavily thickened wall. It may be continuous all layers in radial dimensions. (Fig. 1)

Primary branch roots commonly arise in the peripheral need plants most frequently outside the xylem ring (Fig. 2). The first cork cambium may lose in the pericycle of these roots that

have secondary a vascular tissue. In root a part of the vascular cambium itself (that outside the primary xylem ridges) originates from pericycle cells. See COTYLEDON PLANT ENDODERMIS MERISTEM LATERAL PARENCHYMA PHLOEM ROOT (BOTANY) SCLERENCHYMA STELE (BOTANY) XYLEM see also PLANT TISSUE SYSTEMS [11C]

### Periderm

The protective tissue of stems and root composed of the cork cambium (phell gen) and its derivatives (phellem) and phelloderm (parenchyma). Cork occurs on the outside of the phelloderm in the side of the cork cambium (Fig. 1). Primary dicotyledons and gymnosperms have woody stems of monocotyledon leaves and even fruit may develop without although it may be limited in area and thickness. Some woody monocotyledons develop a special kind of periderm called a rhytidome because of cell arrangement. Corky zone in many herbaceous roots are really specialized cortex.

**Origin of periderm** Typical periderm originates in more or less mature primary tissues the cells of which resume systematic activity. The division occurs parallel with the surface of the organ that is tangential plane. In root the cambium usually arises in the pericycle and the subsequent formation of cork causes the sloughing of the cortex. In stems any living tissue outside the vascular cambium may develop a cork cambium. Cells produced by the cambium toward the outside differentiate into cork as the cell walls become suberized and the protoplasts disintegrate. Some cork cells appear to be empty others contain resins or tannins or ergastic substances. The phelloderm cells which are formed toward the inner margin are and often resemble the parenchyma cells of cortex or phloem. Their radial alignment with the cork cambium and cork provide the evidence that they are part of the periderm. The phelloderm is sometimes called secondary cortex.

Lenticels are characteristic of many periderms (Fig 2). These structures are lens-shaped regions of periderm where the cork cambium divides more frequently than elsewhere and therefore active cells are not as compactly arranged as the cork cells. The lenticels may develop before the rest of the periderm, the cork cambium then spreads from lenticel regions. The lenticel cells may or may not be suberized. All or part of these cells gradually separate from one another. In many plants layers of loosely arranged cells alternate with compact layers which erupt regularly by the production of more cells and then the cell in the erupting zone is called complementary cells and these cells respectively functionally in turn are condensed to begin the periderm that all waxes interchange between the internal epidermis of the plants and the atmosphere. In this respect lenticels are the secondarily replacement of the stomata with epidermis.

**Cork** Cork may be elastic smooth and uniform in structure. Or it may also contain sclereids (hard walled cells) distributed in various patterns. Cork varies in thickness. Commercial cork is an example of a thick cork. Annual rings are known to occur in

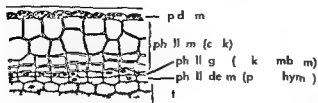


Fig 1 Pe derm Co sect o of supe fical layer in tw g of *Popul delto d* the co k cambium a ose i the oute most co t cal cells and hos formed fo lay m s of co k cells a d one of phellode m the co k s co eed by d d ta n filled ep dermal cell (Fr m A J Eames a d L H Ma Dan l An Int d t ion to Plant A tomy 2d ed M Graw H ll 1947)

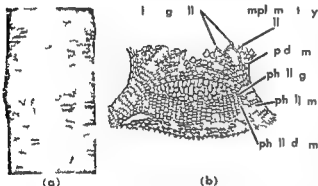


Fig 2 (a) Olivine of alder (Al) (a) Th st m was 4 i n d am ter (fom C L W lo a d W E Loom B t a y re ed Dyde 1957) (b) Olivine of Pr s a m n t n e sect of st m A numbe of s ces e layers of c mpl ment ry a d clo g t s u h b fo med a d th thck laye ph l l derm d p i w d n to th co t (fom A J E m a d L H M Da ls A l t rod c to t Plat A tomy 2d d M Graw H ll 1947)

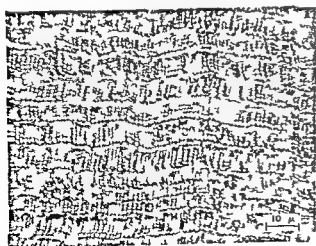


Fig 3 R d o l s c t ion of pe d m of p p e b ch (B t l a p py fe Ma sh) show g al te a t e l y of d l l y n r r w and broad ph l l m (c k) cell (F st P d t Labo t ry USDA)

cork (Fig 3) Some plants produce corky wings on their stems for example cork elm and sweetgum. Roots and underground stems rarely accumulate cork. Exposed portions of roots or rhizomes on the other hand may accumulate cork (or rhytidome) in much the same way as aerial stems.

Corky zones develop regularly as spots on some fruits for example apple and pear in the styles of pineapple and as ridges on *Citrus* fruits. In some aquatic or marsh plants cork cells become T shaped so that the tissue encloses large air spaces. Such tissue is an example of the so called aerenchyma. Cork which forms in response to wounding is similar to normal cork. Periderm often develops in connection with abscission of leaves and other structures it may precede this phenomenon or it may develop as a wound cover after abscission. See BARK CORTEX PLANT EPIDERMIS PLANT FRUIT (BOTANY) LEAF (BOTANY) PARENCHYMA PERICYCLE PHLOEM ROOT (BOTANY) SCLERENCHYMA STEM (BOTANY) [H W BL]

## Peridotite

A dark colored phaneritic (visibly very talline) igneous rock composed largely of olivine with smaller amounts of pyroxene or hornblende. It is one of a group of essentially feldspar free rocks called ultramafites (meaning extremely rich in mafic or dark colored minerals). As feldspar (calcic plagioclase) increases the rock passes into olivine gabbro as pyroxene increases at the expense of olivine the rock passes into pyroxenite. As hornblende becomes the dominant mafic the rock becomes hornblende. Fresh peridotite, one of the heaviest (specific gravity  $3.3 \pm$ ) igneous rocks.

**Composition** Olivine is generally magnesium rich and forms rounded to irregular grains. It is essentially the only mineral in the green sugary looking rock called dunite. Orthopyroxene is generally magnesium rich (enstatite) and the clinopyroxene may be diopside, augite or rarely titaniferous augite. Amphibole is brown or green hornblende and is commonly barkevikite. Mica is magnesium rich (phlogopite) and colorless to red brown. Accessory minerals include chromite, magnetite, ilmenite, spinel, apatite, and garnet. A variety of mica peridotite called kimberlite occurs in pipe-like bodies near Kimberly, South Africa and carries small quantities of diamond. Other peridotites are platinum bearing. Peridotite is usually more or less altered to serpentine, chlorite, carbonate, talc, and actinolite.

**Texture and structure** Most peridotites are crystalline except a few which have irregular pyroxene grains enclosing smaller grains of olivine and magnetite. Certain minerals may be segregated to form banded and layered structure. In some rocks elongated olivine grains in parallel orientation produce a flow structure. In others the texture suggests extremely violent and granulation of olivine crystals.

**Occurrence** Peridotites are found as thin sheets or lenses interlayered with gabbro, pyroxenite, and anorthosite. Here they appear to have different

is d f m gable magma (ro km h) F ne e am  
plies in l de th e of the Stillwat r complex m  
Mo tana and th Tran a l S uth Afr ca Where  
f rmed s ppe pl g and d le period tite ap  
p r st h vel d little therm l effect up n the m  
l s n rocks Th suggests the m terial wa in  
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rep ent p d t of m t m rph m d  
m ta m l m. Se GABRO IGVOLS 80 KS  
METAMORPH M MPTA OMATI i PETROGRAPHIC  
PROVINCE PYROXENITE [C.A.C.]

## Perigee

Th point n et the Earth i th or t f the  
M n o f a a t i l at l t A l per g e the  
Moon i f r l r to Earth than at t mean di  
t e th r b t a l e ent t y l e g 0.055 B  
th a e g the M d c n u l t e n e r l y  
qua s a g l e l a e l p e n a p e r g e e l a t  
a b t s m i a l p e n a s p o g e e i a n l a r  
Th h p g e E n t h a p g i the m a y r a v i s of  
th r b t a l e l i r the l n f p d e The d i f  
f e n t i a l o n of the S n n Earth and Moon  
a th l f a p d s of the M o n t m o e f  
w a d t h b i l p l w i t h a p e d of 88  
y a S M o n P E R I M E L I O N [C.K.]

## Perihelion

I a t m y that p n t a o e t m y f the  
m j t x a f th l i p t a l m b o l e r h y p r  
b o l b t f p l t o m e t a b o t h S n  
h t h p l t m t i e t t the Sun The  
m t n t w h n p l n t r c o m e t a t p e f e l n  
f e d t t l t m e f p r h f a g F  
F a t h t h b t t h t h d f j n r y at  
h h t m F a t h m e l 550 000 m i l e l t t  
t h e c n t n t m e d i e o f 97 900 000 m l e  
S C E L E T L M E C H N I C S O R I T A L O T I O N

[R.L.D.]

## Period (periodic phenomena)

Th i m t e r v l f a n l e p e t t i n f a v a r y n g  
i t y f a o u n r p l m e n w h i r p a t  
i l l e g l y Th p d the p r o c l f the  
f q u e n c y F R E Q U E N C Y (WAVE MOTIO)  
W a e h h l r g u l y e p a t d t m e a r y  
n g t n t i s e s r d p d f e P E R I O D I C  
M O T I O N f g n a l n y c m p l x p r d w a e  
n b e d i d b y F u n a l y the m  
f f e n d e p a t i a l w a h e  
p d e t e g l m u l t p l f a i n g l e d  
k n w n y t h f n d m n t l p o d f the m p l  
w e S W A V E M O T I O N [W.J.C.]

## Periodate

A l t w h h t m o d n t h 7+ d  
t t i d w h i t d e d f m p e o d i c d  
l o d d t k t h f m m t  
p o d e d H I O d m p i d d H I O  
n d p r o d d H I O The o r p o d g  
a l t k w n a l

Only th p e r i o d a t e f a d i u m n d p i a i u m a r  
important G o d m m t a p e r i o d a t N a l O and p o  
t a i u m m t a p r o d t e K I O a r e u r d a o i l i n g  
a g e i m a n a l y t c a l c h e m i t r y S e f o u n d r  
[F.F.W.]

## Periodic motion

A n y m t i s t h a t r e p a t i t e l f i d e t c a l l y a t r g u l a r  
i n t e r v a l I f  $x(t)$  r e p r e s a t t h e d i p l a c e m e n t o f  
a n y c o o r d i n a t e f i t h y s t e m a t t i m t a p e r i o d c  
m t n h a t h e p r i e r t y t l a t

$$x(t+T) = x(t)$$

f o r e v e r y v a l u e o f t h e v a r i t t n t T h e f i x e d  
t i m e i n t e r v a l T l t w e e n r e p e t i t i o n s o r t h e d r a t i o n  
f a c y c l e s k n w n a s t h e p e r i o d o f t h e m t i u  
F r e q u e n c y t h n u m b e r f r e p e t i n g c y c l e s p e r  
u n i t t i m e a n d i n m m a t h e a l l y e q u a l t o t h e r e c p r o c a l  
o f t h e p e r i o d T

T h m o t i o n f t h e e s c a p e m e n t m e c h a n i s m o f a  
w t c h t h e m t i u f t h e e a r t h a t u t t h e s i n a n d  
t h e m r o t a t i o n c o m p l i c a t e d m t i f s l r a n k h f t  
p t n r o d e s a n d p i t o n i s a n e n g i n e r u n n i n g a t  
u s i f t m p e e d a c a l l e x m y l e f p e r i o d m t i n

T h v i b r a t i o n o f a p i a n s t r i n g a f t e r i t i s t r e k  
a d m p d p e r o d c m t i n n t t r i l y p r i o d m  
a d i g e t t h e d e f i n i t i o n A l t h o u g h t h m t i n  
e y n a l y p e t t u l l a n d w i t h a f i x e d m p e t i  
t i n t i m e e h r e c e n t v e l o c i t y h a s a l i g h t l y  
m a l l e a m p l i t u d e S e D A M P I N G

A n y p e r i o d i c m o t i o n c a n b e e x p r e s s e d a s F u  
n c t i o n s o f t i m e a n d e a c h t e r m w h o  
f r e q u e n c y a r e i n t e g r a l m u l t i p l e s f t h e f r e q u e n c y  
o f t h e p r i o d m m o t i o n T h u

$$x(t) = A + \sum A_n \cos(2\pi f_n t) + \dots B_n \sin(2\pi f_n t)$$

w h e t h A n d f a r e c o n s t a n t s F r e q u e n c y a n d  
t h e u m m a y b e t a k n o o r a l l p a r t i c i t e g r  
a l o e s o f n F o r t h e s p e c i f i c a n i n w h i c h t h c o e f f  
i e n t a l l v m t i f r > 1 s H A R M O N I C M O T I O N  
e e a l s F O U R I E R S E R I E S A D E R I V A T I O N S

M a n y s y s t e m s w i t h m o r e t h a n m d g e o f f r e e  
d o m w h o m t i n s n t i m p l y p e r i o d i c r e m u l  
t i p l y p e r d i T h m t i n m v b e c o n d i t i o n a l  
p a r t f r e x a m p l e i t i n t a l a n d t i c a l c m  
p e n t a d a d t n g n t a l m p o n e t h e a h t  
w h i s p e r i o d c b u t w i t h p e r i o d t h t r e n o t  
c o m m u n a l O n e a m p l i t u d e i s t h v i b r a t i o n f a  
b e l l w h s e a r t o n f r e q n e a r t i m p l y e a l e d t  
t h e f u n d a m e n t a l f r e q u e n c y T h e m t i o n f  
t h e o l y i m i s m h p l y p e r i o d c b e a u t  
n e v x a t l y e p e t i t i l l e e n t h g h a h  
p l a n t m e s p o d i l l y S e V I B R A T I O N W A V E  
M O T I O N [J.M.K.]

## Periodic table

A t a b l e f t h e l m t w r i s n z q u e n t h  
d f t m c n u m b r r r t m w g h t i  
a g d m h r z o t a l w s (p e d i) n d t i j  
l m (g r p) t a l l t a t t h e e f  
s m u l a t u m i t h p p e t o f t h e e l e m e n t a a  
p e i d f u n t n o f t h q c e  
A l t h o u g h t h p p l e f t h p e d r n g  
m e t w s f i r m l y t b l h d l y a e t u r y a g



PERIODIC TABLE OF THE ELEMENTS																VIIa 0					
																Ia	IIa				
1 H 1.0080																1 H 1.0080	2 He 4.003				
3 Li 6.940	4 Be 9.013															5 B 10.82	6 C 12.011	7 N 14.008	8 O 16.000	9 F 19.00	10 Ne 20.183
11 Na 22.991	12 Mg 24.32															13 Al 26.98	14 Si 28.09	15 P 30.975	16 S 32.066	17 Cl 35.45	18 Ar 39.944
19 K 39.100	20 Ca 40.08	21 Sc 44.96	22 Ti 47.90	23 V 50.95	24 Cr 52.01	25 Mn 54.94	26 Fe 55.85	27 Co 58.94	28 Ni 58.71	29 Cu 63.54	30 Zn 65.38	31 Ga 69.72	32 Ge 72.60	33 As 74.92	34 Se 78.96	35 Br 79.91	36 Kr 83.80				
37 Rb 85.48	38 Sr 87.63	39 Y 88.91	40 Zr 91.22	41 Nb 92.91	42 Mo 95.95	43 Tc (98)*	44 Ru 101.1	45 Rh 102.91	46 Pd 106.4	47 Ag 107.88	48 Cd 112.41	49 In 114.82	50 Sn 118.70	51 Sb 121.76	52 Te 127.61	53 I 126.91	54 Xe 131.30				
55 Cs 132.91	56 Ba 137.36	57 La 138.92	58 Ce 140.13	59 Pr 140.91	60 Nd 144.27	61 Pm (147)*	62 Sm 150.35	63 Eu 152.0	64 Gd 157.26	65 Tb 158.93	66 Dy 162.51	67 Ho 164.94	68 Er 167.27	69 Tm 168.94	70 Yb 173.04	71 Lu 174.99					
87 Fr (223)*	88 Ra (226)*	89 Ac (227)*																			
LANTHANUM SERIES			90 Th 232.05	91 Pa 231	92 U 238.07	93 Np (237)*	94 Pu (242)*	95 Am (243)*	96 Cm (247)*	97 Bk (249)*	98 Cf (251)*	99 Es (254)*	100 Fm (257)*	101 Md (258)*	102 No (259)*						
ACTINIUM SERIES																					

\*mass number of most stable known isotope

there has been much debate as to the most suitable form of display. A widely accepted modern arrangement is presented in the accompanying table which is commonly referred to as a long table.

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The following sections will serve to illustrate some of the correlative features of the periodic arrangement.

**Valence.** In general elements in the same group display a similar valence which is numerically equal to the group number. The rule holds most firmly for the main groups I through V, less so for the subgroup elements and still less for the elements of groups VI, VII and VIII. Among these latter the group number valence is more readily achieved by the heavier as compared with the lighter elements. (Group II elements are distinguished by an almost complete lack of chemical reactivity and hence show zero valence.)

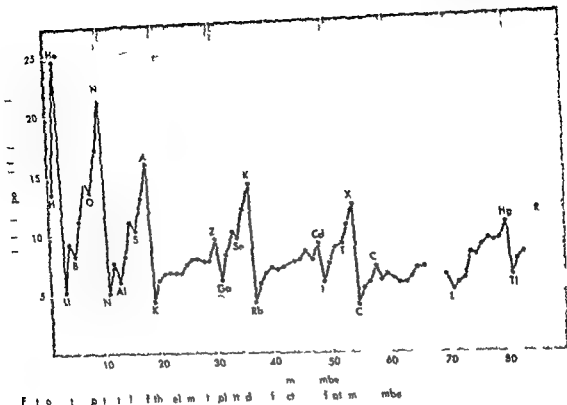
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mental or uncombined state into metals and nonmetals. The nonmetals are confined to the lighter elements of groups IVA through VIIa. Between the area occupied by the typically metallic elements and that occupied by the nonmetals there is a somewhat ill defined borderland of elements (germanium, Ge, arsenic, As, antimony, Sb, tellurium, Te, and polonium, Po) whose properties are transitional between the metallic and nonmetallic element.

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**Other properties.** The periodic table affords only a limited illustration of the same correlation of properties of the periodic arrangement. Other properties



F i o t p i l l t h e l m t p l n d f c t f a t m m b s

e t e w h c h h a s b e e n h w t x h i b n a n a l o g o u s  
t r d a n d p e r i o d i c n l d e o d a t o n p o t e t a l  
h e t f f m a t i o n f t y p o m p o n d e l e c t r i c a l  
c d t i t y m e l t g p o n t b o l m p n t o i c  
r a d u s a t n p t e n t a l l e c t o n a f f i n i t y o p t i c a l  
s p e c t u m n d m g n t e b e h i

A l t h o u g h a e m e n t o h a s b e e n m d e o f t h e  
l a k o f a g e m e n t w i t h e s p e c t i d e t l o f t h e  
p e o d e r r a g m n t a t m u t n t b e m g n e d t h t  
i t b r d y a t m i z a t n s r m s d p e d a t p o n  
o n f o r m f i b l t h n a n t h e

T h e p e o d i c i t y w a s d e v e l p d n d l a g e l y  
p e r f e t d b y D m t r i M n d l e v i n t h m d m e  
t t h e t u r y a e m p a l e i t b e t w e e n  
t h i m l p o p r t f t h e l e m e n t n d t h i r  
a t m w g h t s I n t h e l i g h t o f m o d e r n k n w l e d g e  
c h o l l t b e x p r a n t h  
m m e w i g h t d i t m e d l m t e n t l y b y t h e  
m s o f t h a t m n e l w h i h p l l y a n  
i g n i t i e h m i l r e t n s

W i t h f e w e x c e p t i o n h w e v t h a q u e n c e l  
l m e n t e c o d i g t i m w g h t s d t a l  
w i t h t h e c o r d g i t m m b e T h u l t t e  
q u a n t i t y u m r a l l y q u a l t t h u m b e f  
x t a u l a e l t r a n s t h n u t r l r u c h a g e d  
t m f a l e m n r l t h e l t r n p t l l y  
t h f t h e t m e d f r m t h n c l e u w h i h d e  
t r a n h m l b e h v T h u s f a t o m i  
a h t e r r d r d n t h e t i l y p r t f t h e  
m n t t u r y r q t h t e q u a l i t m  
o f r g u l a l y e a g a t m n m b t h r h l d  
b e a p a d n e t h e n m b r a n d t y p o f  
l e t n n t h e o t e r m o t l e e t o n c h l l T h  
f r m t h e t r e b s f t h p r d t a o f t h  
p p e t e s o f t h e l n t s

F e w s t e m p t a t n t h e h t r y o f s c e n e c a n  
r a l t h e p e r i o d i c n e p t a s a b o a d r e v l i t i o n o f  
t h e r d e o f t h e p h y s l w r l d I n t h r h y t h m i c  
p a t t r n l t h p r o p e r t i e s o f t h e e l e m e n t t h o  
a r c h i t e c t u r a l u n i t o f t h e u n i e r e n a p e t o f  
t h e i r b e h a i o c h a g e s a p i c o u s o r w h i l l y  
o e l w y W h a t e v e r n e w e l e m e n t m a y b e d s  
o e r e d n t h e f u t u r e i t c e t a n t h e y w l l f n d a  
p l a c e i n t h e p e o d e r y t e m c n l r m i n g t o i t s o r  
d e r a n d e h b i t i n g t h e p p e r f a m l l c h a r a t e r  
i t u e s S e A T O M I C S T R U C T U R E A N D S P E C T R A V a  
28722 {BACU}

B i b l g p h y T M o e l l e r l o r g a n i c C h e m i s t r y  
1952

## Periodicity in organisms

C h a r a t e r i s t i c r h y t h m o r y e l o f l i v i n g p h e n o m e n a  
e a C o l l e c t i v e l y i g o r g a n i s m d p l a y a b a d  
p e r i o d i c p r i d e l g i t h a n g i n g f r o m s u c h h i g h  
f r e q u e n c e s t l o f l a i n w a v e s (a c o m p l e o f  
l e r n i c l p t e n t i l r h y t h m s t h e b a i n w i t h m a y  
c y l e p e r o n d) a n d h e a r t b a t t h e m e r a l  
y a y e l f a b u d a o f r i o u s p r o c e s s e s H w  
e p e d e t y m o g a n m h a l l h e e l a r i t r  
l y i t p e t e d s s l u d e o n l y l i m i t e d g r o u p o f  
p e r i o d i c r e l a t e d t o t h n t u r a l p h y a l o n e s  
o f t h e e a r t h n a m e l y d a y s l n s t d e s m n t h a n d  
y e a r T h e e m o d t i e s m m o l y c o m p r e i m p  
p a r a d p t a t o f t h e o g a n i s m t o t h e n r m l  
f l u c t u a t m s I s u c h h u e i r o n m e n t a l f a c t o s

I n m a t i n t e m p r t r e a n d t h e o c e a n t i d e s  
T h e s e r h y t h m w h i h m o g a n i s m s i n n a t u r a e

I t q u e p r e c e l y o f t h e n a t u r a l g e o p h y c l  
f r e q u e n c e h a s e c r a p e c l  
a m m o w h h t e d t o s t t h e m  
o t h e r

## PERIODIC TABLE OF THE ELEMENTS

Ia																VIIa 0																									
I H 1 0080																2 He 4 003																									
3 Li 6 940		IIa 4 Be 9 013														5 B 10 82		6 C 12 011		7 N 14 008		8 O 16 000		9 F 19 00		10 Ne 20 183															
11 Na 22 991		12 Mg 24 32														13 Al 26 98		14 Si 28 09		15 P 30 975		16 S 32 066		17 Cl 35 457		18 Ar 39 944															
19 K 39 100		20 Ca 40 08		21 Sc 44 96		22 Ti 47 90		23 V 50 95		24 Cr 52 01		25 Mn 54 94		26 Fe 55 85		27 Co 58 94		28 Ni 58 71		29 Cu 63 54		30 Zn 65 38		31 Ga 69 72		32 Ge 72 60		33 As 74 92		34 Se 78 96		35 Br 79 91		36 Kr 83 80							
37 Rb 85 48		38 Sr 87 63		39 Y 88 91		40 Zr 91 22		41 Nb 92 91		42 Mo 95 95		43 Tc (99)*		44 Ru 101 1		45 Rh 102 91		46 Pd 106 4		47 Ag 107 86		48 Cd 112 41		49 In 114 82		50 Sn 118 70		51 Sb 121 76		52 Te 127 61		53 I 126 91		54 Xe 131 30							
55 Cs 132 91		56 Ba 137 34		57 La 138 92		58 Ce 140 13		59 Pr 140 91		60 Nd 144 27		61 Pm (147)*		62 Sm 150 35		63 Eu 152 0		64 Gd 157 26		65 Tb 158 93		66 Dy 162 51		67 Ho 164 94		68 Er 167 27		69 Tm 168 94		70 Yb 173 04		71 Lu 174 97									
87 Fr (223)*		88 Ra 226 05		89 Ac 227 0		LANTHANUM SERIES																																			
90 Th 232 05		91 Pa 231		92 U 238 07		93 Np (237)*		94 Pu (242)*		95 Am (243)*		96 Cm (247)*		97 Bk (249)*		98 Cf (251)*		99 Es (254)*		100 Fm (257)*		101 Md (258)*		102 No (259)*																	
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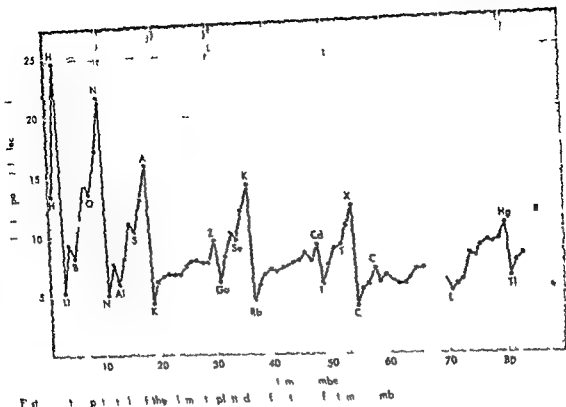
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**Atomic volumes.** The volume occupied by 1 gram at atomic weight of an element in the solid state is called its atomic volume. If this property is plotted against atomic number the resultant curve exhibits periodic maxima and minima the former being due principally to the metals of group I and the latter to the metals of group VIII.

**Other properties.** The preceding section affords only a limited illustration of the immense correlation in the power of the periodic arrangement. Other properties



erty with the elements known to exhibit analogous tendencies and periodicity include oxidation potential, rate of formation of type compounds, electrical conductivity, melting point, boiling point, etc. The periodicity of the elements is a function of the periodicity of the elements.

Although some of the elements have been found to lack a regularity with respect to the periodicity of the elements, it is a general principle that the periodicity of the elements is a function of the periodicity of the elements.

The periodicity of the elements is a function of the periodicity of the elements. The periodicity of the elements is a function of the periodicity of the elements. The periodicity of the elements is a function of the periodicity of the elements. The periodicity of the elements is a function of the periodicity of the elements.

With few exceptions however, the sequence of elements in the periodic table is identical with the sequence of elements in the periodic table. The periodicity of the elements is a function of the periodicity of the elements. The periodicity of the elements is a function of the periodicity of the elements. The periodicity of the elements is a function of the periodicity of the elements.

Few systematic studies have been made of the periodicity of the elements. The periodicity of the elements is a function of the periodicity of the elements. The periodicity of the elements is a function of the periodicity of the elements. The periodicity of the elements is a function of the periodicity of the elements.

Bibliography: T. Moeller, *Organic Chemistry*, 1952.

## Periodicity in organisms

Characteristics of the periodicity of the elements are: 1. The periodicity of the elements is a function of the periodicity of the elements. 2. The periodicity of the elements is a function of the periodicity of the elements. 3. The periodicity of the elements is a function of the periodicity of the elements. 4. The periodicity of the elements is a function of the periodicity of the elements.

PERIODIC TABLE OF THE ELEMENTS																VIIa 0					
Ia															IIa	I	2				
1 H 1.0080															4 He 4.003	1 H 1.0080	2 He 4.003				
3 Li 6.940	4 Be 9.013															5 B 10.82	6 C 12.011	7 N 14.008	8 O 16.000	9 F 19.00	10 Ne 20.183
11 Na 22.991	12 Mg 24.32	IIIa	IVa	Va	VIa	VIIa	VIII		IB	IIb	13 Al 26.98	14 Si 28.09	15 P 30.975	16 S 32.066	17 Cl 35.457	18 Ar 39.944					
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55 Cs 132.91	56 Ba 137.36	57 La 138.92	72 Hf 178.50	73 Ta 180.95	74 W 183.86	75 Re 186.22	76 Os 190.2	77 Ir 192.2	78 Pt 195.09	79 Au 197.0	80 Hg 200.59	81 Tl 204.39	82 Pb 207.2	83 Bi 208.98	84 Po 210	85 At (210) <sup>a</sup>	86 Rn 222				
87 Fr (223) <sup>a</sup>	88 Ra 226.05	89 Ac 227.0																			
LANTHANUM SERIES			58 Ce 140.13	59 Pr 140.91	60 Nd 144.27	61 Pm (147) <sup>a</sup>	62 Sm 150.35	63 Eu 152.0	64 Gd 157.26	65 Tb 158.93	66 Dy 162.51	67 Ho 164.94	68 Er 167.27	69 Tm 168.94	70 Yb 173.04	71 Lu 174.99					
ACTINIUM SERIES			90 Th 232.05	91 Pa 231	92 U 238.07	93 Np (237) <sup>a</sup>	94 Pu (242) <sup>a</sup>	95 Am (243) <sup>a</sup>	96 Cm (247) <sup>a</sup>	97 Bk (249) <sup>a</sup>	98 Cf (251) <sup>a</sup>	99 Es (254) <sup>a</sup>	100 Fm (257) <sup>a</sup>	101 Md (258) <sup>a</sup>	102 No (259) <sup>a</sup>						

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f m ll po bly eff ct e geophy cal pe i di m  
The the hyp the st th the organ mi pe  
r d d pe d up n a co t n u g e p o n e of the  
ga m t p r v g o p l c l h y t h m I t h a  
w b e f l l y e t a b l h e d t h t p r o d m f a l l  
the n t a l g e o p h y i a l f e q u e c i e a t l l y d o c  
r l n t h g a r e p o n e t t h e r p h y c a l  
m n t e e n u n d e r e d t o s o i n t w l  
e p e c t t l l t h e f t r f o r m e l y n d e r e d a l l e  
t i f l e e t h e m I t h a l s b e e p a b l t o a c  
n t q t r a t i o n l l y f r a l l t h u a l b e r v e d  
p r p t u s o f p h y i l g e l r h y t h m s t e r m o f  
h e o e u t m g d t g e t h r w t h k n w n p o p e r t e  
r e f d a p t e p h g f t h e r h y t h m b y l i g h t  
d t e m p e a t T h h p t h a l c i t f r  
t h t a d a r y t e m p e a t u r e a n d d r i n d  
n e o f t h h y t h m p o d s [F A B]  
B l o g p h y F A B w J The r h y t h  
t e o f m l a d p l a t A m S c n t s t 47 (2)  
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# Perischoechinoidea

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I I T H R I O I D O I D C I D A O I D E C H I O C Y T I  
T O I D A E C H N O E A P L A C H I O I A [H B F]

# Periscope

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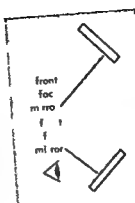


Fig 3 S m p l p e o p e  
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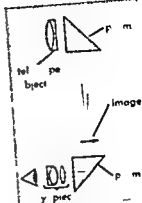


Fig 4 R i g h t a n g l e  
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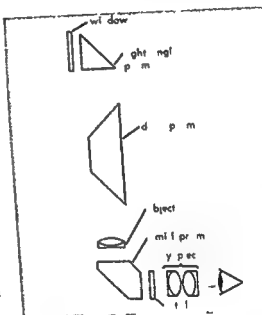


Fig 5 P m l i g h t

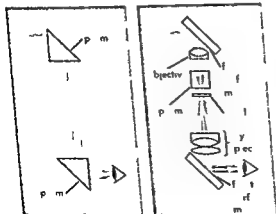


Fig 1 S m p l t k p  
s c p w t h m l l e  
f l c t g r f

Fig 2 T k p p  
w t h t t l l e  
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plexity fr m the simple u t p w e t a k p e i c p e  
t the m p l m l u e l e m e n t b m a r i n e p e r i  
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**Tank periscope** This d e e i n t e n d d t p r o t t  
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p w e S e T E L E S C O P E  
I t l m b l e t g t h e t w o m r r s o f a  
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biological periodicity and support the view that they are utilized very importantly as clocks and calendars to enable living things to live more harmoniously with their rhythmic physical environment. See *ECOLOGY*.

Examples of solar day (24-hour) rhythmic phenomena related to the rotation of the earth relative to the sun are the sleep movement of plant leaves and petal change in skin color of crabs emergence of fruitflies from pupal case wakefulness and spontaneous activity of animals body temperature hormone titers in the blood and susceptibility to drugs and toxic agents. Lunar day (24.8 hour) rhythms related to the rotation of the earth relative to the moon are characteristic of many activities of animals dwelling on the seashores subjected continuously to the moon dominated ocean tide. The rhythmic daily and tidal patterns of organismic change are adjusted to the physical environmental cycles so as to be of optimal survival value. The synodic month of 29.5 days is the period between two successive synchronizations of solar and lunar noon or the average period separating two consecutive new moons. Of this average period are for example the reproductive cycles of many marine animals and plants and the human menstrual period. Annual periodicities in organisms are most evident at latitudes distant from the Equator but strangely enough they may also occur in organisms in the annual constancy of equatorial region. Familiar examples of annual rhythms are those of reproduction in animals and of growth flowering and fruiting in plants. See *BODY RHYTHM ESTRUS GESTATION PERIOD PLANT PHYSIOLOGY*.

**Persistence of the rhythms.** Although in the natural environment the observed cycles clearly depend in good measure upon organismic response to the cyclic patterns of such factors as light temperature and the ocean tide it is commonly found that when the organisms are removed from their habitat and placed in conditions constant with respect to the effective factors the organism not only may continue to exhibit the same rhythmic fluctuations with closely the same periods but may retain in the daily or tidal cycles even detailed characteristics of the environmentally impressed adaptive pattern. The organism therefore possesses some means for timing the cycle periods which does not depend upon the rhythm of the obvious environmental factors which normally determine the form of pattern of the cyclic fluctuations. Furthermore this whole pattern of the periodically recurring cycles can be abruptly shifted to bear any arbitrarily selected phase relationship to the natural external day-night cycles by appropriately adjusting the time of day of occurrence of change in such factor as light or temperature in artificially administered 24-hour cycles of the effective factors. Once shifted the cycles may persist in the constant laboratory conditions with the newly impressed relationship relative to the time of day by the clock. It

light and temperature the phases of the recurrent fluctuations may display a spontaneous maladjustment to yield observed regular periods which are longer or shorter than the natural ones.

The rhythms persisting in constant conditions are timed by a mechanism well adapted for timing temporal precision. If timing were dependent exclusively on a clock of a conventional metabolic type the periods would shorten at higher temperatures and lengthen at lower ones. Drugs modifying metabolic rate would similarly give timing inaccuracies. However numerous experiments have shown the organismic timer to be essentially independent of such alterations in metabolic rate. Color change cycles with accurate solar and lunar periods continue over a 90°C temperature range in fiddler crabs in constant conditions. Plants continue to show daily sleep movements of their leaves and other rhythmic activities with relatively constant periods in period although they may be subjected to wide ranges of constant temperatures or following application of metabolic depressants. See *CHROMATOPHORE PROTECTIVE COLORATION*.

There is substantial evidence that certain persistent solar day and lunar day rhythms constitute timing systems enabling animals such as birds and arthropods which navigate using sun or moon to correct continuously for the earth's rotation in order to maintain straight compass directions. They are also reasons to believe that solar day rhythms serve as timer underlying the well known organismic response to seasonal changes in day length. See *PHOTOPERIODISM IN PLANTS*.

**Mechanism of persistent rhythms.** From preceding it is evident on the one hand that the clocks underlying organismic periodicities are remarkably stable and accurate in period length and yet on the other hand that the cyclic patterns of change are quite labile and plastic as the organisms adaptively use these basic clocks to accommodate themselves readily to changing demands of the environment. In brief the rhythmic component of the most remarkable illustration of organismic adaptation to their physical environment.

The basic hypotheses exist of the nature of organismic timing system. One of the essential characteristics is that the organism possesses quite independently of the physical environment natural period of biological oscillation matching closely all the natural physical frequencies. The period is believed to have reached their present length with the evolution of natural selection and now to be preserved generally. The major difficulty of this hypothesis is the problem of conceiving an organismic oscillator with such long period as the physical frequencies of the extraterrestrial tabular period of 100 years for the existence of which a fully autonomous clock system must await demonstration of persistence.



Fig 1 The odd-toed horse foot bone of the Miocene of North America (H. O. Born 1978)

partly changing pack (derby) to Eocene. This late evolution probably is due to the increasing diversity and emphasis on the better adapted line. *S. arctidactyla* fossils Co. Dylarth & Fioluio, Oregon.

The development of the first three toes is clearly suppressed with the third toe being the most prominent. The third toe is the most prominent, and the first and second toes are reduced. The third toe is the most prominent, and the first and second toes are reduced. The third toe is the most prominent, and the first and second toes are reduced.

Two basic types have been recognized: the Hippomorph and the Brontothere. The Hippomorph is characterized by a single, large, central toe (the third toe) and two smaller, lateral toes (the first and second toes). The Brontothere is characterized by a single, large, central toe (the third toe) and two smaller, lateral toes (the first and second toes).

response to the spread of grassland environments at that time.

**Hippomorpha** Horses (North America and Europe) and the related paleotheres (Europe) appeared in the early Eocene while their contemporaries the brontotheres seem to have been restricted to North America. The rapid evolution of the brontotheres was remarkable for by late Eocene time this group had reached its greatest diversity producing some of the largest land mammals then known. North American horses related Europe until the Miocene but brontotheres apparently reached both Europe and Asia by late Eocene time and lingered there until the middle Oligocene. Extinction of the brontotheres had already taken place in North America by the close of the early Oligocene. The chalicotheres first appeared in North America during the late Eocene but did not survive the middle Miocene in North America. They apparently reached Africa in the latest Cretaceous and survived there sometime after their extinction in the Eocene. Chalicotheres The main stream of horse evolution clearly took place in North America from which Miocene Pliocene and Pleistocene ancestors of Eurasia were launched. North America was invaded many times once by horses and tapirs in the late Cenozoic.

**Ceratomorpha** Perissodactyls were common in the Eocene of Eurasia and North America but the modern family did not enter the record until Oligocene time. Although they inhabited the Northern Hemisphere until the close of the Pleistocene, tapirs survive today only in the Old and New World tropics. The rhinoceros first appeared in the early Eocene (North America and the Oligocene time) inhabited the whole of the Northern Hemisphere. At that time they seem to have attained their maximum development, producing such giant as *Paraceratherium* the largest terrestrial mammal known. By Miocene time the Eocene lines

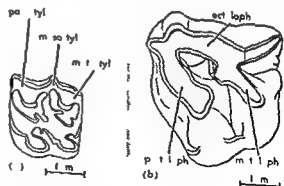


Fig 2 The first upper molar (a) and the second upper molar (b) of the Miocene of North America (H. O. Born 1978)



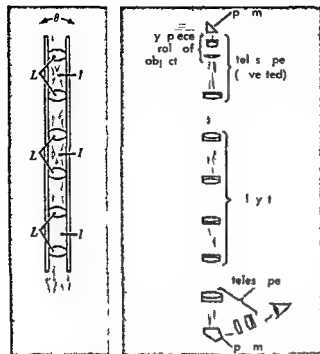


Fig 6 Periscopic relay train showing lenses  $L$ , mirrors  $M$ , and inverted images  $I$  and angle of view  $\theta$

Fig 7 Submarine periscope a pair of relay telescopes with a relay train between

which case the observer views an inverted image with his back to the direction from which light enters the instrument. By adding an inverting (astronomical type) telescope to this system (Fig 4) the image is reinverted. See TELESCOPE, ASTRONOMICAL.

Periscopes of this type cannot be used for scanning the horizon by rotating the upper mirror because of the image rotation which accompanies such movement. In the panoramic sight (Fig 5) this difficulty is overcome by providing the system with a dove prism which rotates at half the angular speed of the right angle prism through the action of a differential gear linkage. The combined motions of the dove prism and the ampr prism at the bottom completely compensate for those of the telescope system while the relative motions of the right angle prism and the dove prism maintain the image erect during scanning. See PRISM, OPTICAL.

**Submarine periscope.** In this device it is necessary to use a telescope system having a wide field of view and uniform illumination across the field which can be fitted into a long narrow tube whose length to diameter ratio may be 50 or greater. This is achieved by utilizing a plurality of lenses so spaced along the length of the tube as to cause the incoming principal rays from the edge of the field to be deviated from side to side within the tube. In general the greater the number of lenses the wider the field of view. One example of the periscopic relay train is shown in Fig 6 and employs six lenses with three inversions. The typical submarine periscope (Fig 7) may be considered to be a pair of telescopes facing each other with such a relay train between. The usual magnification of

submarine periscopes is 6, although some U.S. Navy periscopes have dual magnifications of 6 and 15, the latter being achieved by inserting an inverted Galilean telescope into the optical path before the top objective.

The submarine periscope can be provided with a built-in rangefinder for fire control purposes. A conventional coincidence or split-field type of rangefinder may be attached either vertically or horizontally to the upper end of the periscope, the objective of which receives an image from each of the entrance windows of the rangefinder. See RANGEFINDER, OPTICAL, SUBMARINE.

**Other types.** Various modifications of the basic optical systems described here are employed as viewing periscopes in military aircraft and as viewing devices in particle accelerators and nuclear reactors. The cystoscope and endoscope are slender, sometimes mechanically flexible periscopes used for visual examination and photography of body cavities inaccessible to direct observation. [EKK]

**Bibliography.** C. H. v. Hofe, *Fernoptik* 1941; D. H. Jacobs, *Fundamentals of Optical Engineering* 1943; A. König, *Die Fernrohre und Entfernungsmesser* 1937; L. C. Martin, *Technical Optics* vol. 2 1950.

## Perissodactyla

An order of hoofed mammals in which the axis of the foot passes through the middle toe, often called the odd-toed ungulates. The order includes the horses, tapirs, rhinoceroses, and their extinct relatives. Perissodactyls first appeared in the early Eocene, reached the height of their evolutionary history in the Oligocene when they were the dominant ungulates in most of the world, and have been on the decline ever since. The order is represented by two principal evolutionary lines. The Hippomorpha include the horses and three other groups now extinct: the paleotheres, titanotheres, and chalicotheres. The Ceratomorpha include the tapirs, rhinoceroses, and several families that became extinct in the late Eocene and Oligocene: the isetolophids, lophiodontids, helaeletids, hyrachyids, hyracodontids, and amynodonts. See EUTHERIA, PERISSODACTYLA FOSSILS. [DDD]

## Perissodactyla fossils

The odd-toed ungulates, hoofed herbivores represented today by the horse, tapir, and rhinoceros families, have a fossil record that includes nine additional families. This record forms one of the most completely known chapters in the history of the Mammalia. Horses, in particular, provide a record that in richness of detail has produced the most compelling paleontological evidence for evolution as a natural process. The origin of the perissodactyls, however, is still obscure, although it is clear that the Condylarthra provide ideal structural antecedents. Perissodactyls first appear in the early Eocene of North America and Europe and evolved



had become extinct and only the modern family remained. At that time the rhinos had reached Africa and by the close of the Pleistocene they were restricted to that continent and southeast Asia having vacated their North American birthplace as early as the middle Pliocene [RHT]

## Peritoneum

The membranous lining of the abdominal cavity composed mainly of flattened epithelial cells that produce a small amount of watery or serous fluid. In the embryo the interior body wall is covered with this membrane which continues over the developing tubular viscera so that they are suspended and supported by the reflected peritoneum principally from the posterior body wall. See EPITHELIUM.

As the organs develop, enlarge, and assume their adult form and arrangement the supporting peritoneum becomes modified, some being lost and other portions becoming thickened, twisted or otherwise adapting to normal growth. After development is completed those portions which line the interior body wall are called the parietal peritoneum and the supporting sheets are known collectively as mesentery, although many areas have received specific names. The remaining peritoneum which covers most of the organs is called the visceral peritoneum and this forms the outer layer or serosa of the walls of portions of the gastrointestinal tract.

The remaining space containing a small amount of fluid between the serosa and the parietal peritoneum is the remnant of the coelom or body cavity.

In lower vertebrates there is less complexity of development of the viscera so that the peritoneum in fishes for example remains a fairly straight suspensory structure which supports the tubular digestive tract and continues around the body cavity to line the inner wall. [EGST]

## Peritonitis

Inflammation of the peritoneum, the serous membrane which lines the abdominal cavity and surrounds most of the abdominal organs. The condition may be caused by infectious organisms or foreign substances introduced into the abdominal cavity. The small amount of serous fluid normally present acts as a lubricant and as an excellent culture medium for bacterial growth and also as a means of spreading invading material. The source of such substance or organisms is commonly mesenteric inflammation especially if perforation has occurred. Appendicitis, peptic ulcer, cancer of the bowel, gallbladder disease and dysentery are common sources of infection that may produce peritonitis as well as blood-borne forms of tuberculosis and pneumonia.

Infection may also stem from spread of bacterial organisms from the female organ, the kidney and the pancreas. Each form of peritonitis may have both common and specific features.

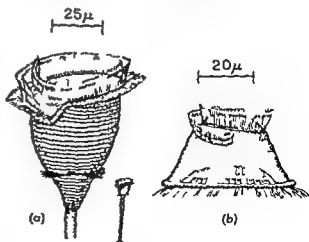
Contamination of the abdominal cavity may occur from penetration of the abdominal wall during an accident or following a wound. Bile, blood or fluid from a ruptured abdominal cyst or ectopic pregnancy may also induce a peritoneal inflammation.

Where peritonitis occurs the normally glistening peritoneum becomes dull, the blood vessels engorge and a fibrin-containing exudate is produced which may later lead to adhesions. A tendency for localization is apparent with loops of intestine or other organs forming pockets of inflammation.

The clinical course is quite variable depending on the agent involved, the type and severity of reaction and concomitant disease. See AMEBIASIS, BACILLARY DYSENTERY, GALLBLADDER, PEPTIC ULCER, PNEUMONIA, PREGNANCY DISORDERS OF TUBERCULOSIS. [EGST]

## Pentrichida

An order of the Holotricha composed of a group of unusual looking ciliates that has excited the curiosity of microscopists for nearly 300 years. Many are sessile and stalked while some form colonies which may reach a large size. A number are attached as ectocommensals to a variety of animals and plants. A free swimming stage in the life cycle indispensable for distribution is known as the telotroch. It is a small mouthless form equipped with a single girdle of posteriorly located locomotor cilia. This is quite unlike the morphology of the mature sedentary form which is an inverted bell form atop a long stalk. The body is naked of cilia except for conspicuous wreaths of buccal ciliary organelles at the oral end. Much is made by many protozoologists of the fact that the adoral zone of membranelles in this instance winds counterclockwise toward the mouth. Actually this is of little real importance although convenient in taxonomic keys. *Paratricha* (a of illustration) and *Epistylis* are probably the best known stalked forms. The former is a solitary ciliate, the latter a solitary builder. *Trichodina* (b of illustration) belongs



Pentrichida (a) *Paratricha* stalked pentrich (b) *Trichodina*

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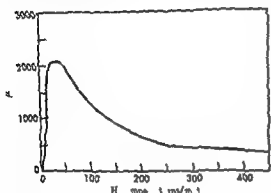


Fig 2 P m b l t y f w g h t f u t f  
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Permian

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ARCHEOZOIC	PROTEROZOIC	CAMBRIAN	ORDOVICIAN	SILURIAN	DEVONIAN	CARBONIFEROUS	TRIASSIC
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 k n w u n t i l 1909 w h e G H G r t y p b i h e d l i s  
 m o n o g r a p h T h e G u d l p t n F a I n t n  
 t u d y f o l l w e d t h d m y f o l m t h r e x n

restricts or inhibits plant growth and aids frost action it is also one of the most important factors in engineering problems in the polar regions See FROST ACTION MASS WASTING SOLIFLUCTION

[RFB]

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## Permalloy

An alloy of iron and nickel with or without small or moderate additions of other elements Permalloy is of scientific and technical interest because it has unusually high magnetic permeability

The nickel content varies from about 40 to 80% The most commonly added element is molybdenum (4-5%) but similar amounts of chromium and copper are also used these increase both the permeability and the resistivity The highest permeability is obtained in Superalloy in which are combined the beneficial effects of alloy addition (5% Mo) high purity (aided by heat treatment in pure hydrogen at 1300 C) and optimum cooling rate (1-5C/min) through the critical temperature of ordering (about 500 C)

The binary alloys containing from 50 to 80% nickel are susceptible to magnetic anneal that is their magnetic properties are drastically changed if they are cooled from about 600 to 400 C in the presence of a magnetic field of a few oersteds The maximum permeability is thereby raised and the hysteresis loop becomes rectangular in form

For the compositions and properties of the most used permalloys see MAGNETIC MATERIALS see also PERMEABILITY MAGNETIC [RMB]

## Permanganate

The deep purple anion  $MnO_4^-$  which is derived from permanganic acid  $HMnO_4$  Although the parent acid is stable only in dilute aqueous solution the salts are well characterized The permanganates resemble the perchlorates in their oxidizing properties and solubility of both the heavy metal and alkaline earth metal salts

Potassium permanganate the most common permanganate is produced from a mixture of potassium hydroxide and manganese dioxide which has been oxidized by potassium chlorate chlorine or ozone Permanganates are used as disinfectants oxidizing agents wood preservatives and bleach See MANGANESE COMPOUND OXIDIZING AGENT [EEWR]

## Permeability magnetic

A factor characteristic of a material that is proportional to the magnetic flux density (magnetic induction)  $B$  produced in the material by a magnetic field divided by the intensity of the field  $H$  Permeability is usually represented by the Greek letter  $\mu$

**Absolute permeability** Consider a solenoid that has been bent into a circular form so that the ends

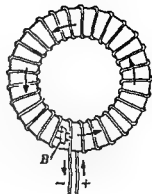


Fig 1 A solenoid wound in the form of a toroid

are joined together This winding is called a toroid (Fig 1) For a closely wound toroid almost all the flux is in the interior The intensity of the magnetic field inside the toroid is

$$H = \frac{NI}{l}$$

where  $l$  is the mean circumference of the toroid and  $I$  is the current in the toroid coil See MAGNETIC FIELD

The flux density  $B$  within the toroid is found from Ampere's law to be

$$B_0 = \mu_0 \frac{NI}{l}$$

if the toroid is in empty space (see AMPERE'S LAW) Then

$$\mu_0 = \frac{B_0}{H}$$

If a medium takes the place of the empty space within the toroid the value of  $B$  changes for the same value of  $H$  The ratio of  $B$  to  $H$  is called the absolute permeability of the medium

$$\mu = \frac{B}{H}$$

Since the mks unit of  $B$  is the weber per square meter and the corresponding unit of  $H$  is the ampere per meter the mks unit of permeability is the weber per ampere meter A second unit is the henry per meter That these two units are equivalent is seen from the relationship  $L = \Phi/I$  Since the inductance  $L$  is in henrys when the flux  $\Phi$  is in webers and  $I$  is in amperes the henry is a weber per ampere Thus a henry per meter is the same as a weber per ampere meter See INDUCTANCE

**Relative permeability** It is convenient to define another quantity called the relative permeability  $\mu_r$  as the ratio of the permeability  $\mu$  of the material to the permeability  $\mu_0$  of empty space

$$\mu_r = \frac{\mu}{\mu_0}$$

Relative permeability is a pure number and independent of the system of units used The permeability of free space has the numerical value of  $4\pi \times 10^{-7}$  henry per meter See ELECTRICAL UNITS

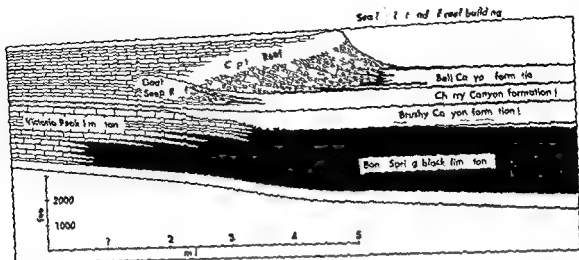


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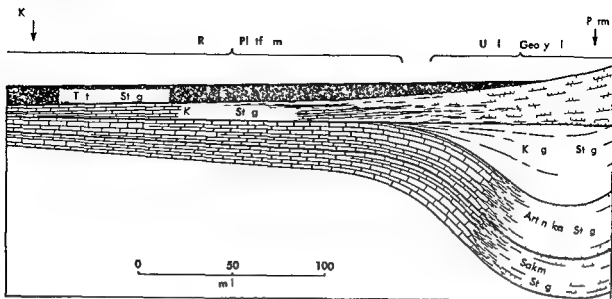


Fig 1 East west section of the Permian System in its type region

about 1920 and it has now become the standard section for North America and to a considerable degree for the world. It is now divided into four series as follows: Ochoan series about 4500 ft, Guadalupian series about 3000 ft, Leonardian series about 3000 ft, and Wolfcampian series 1500+ ft.

The Wolfcampian correlates closely with the Sakmarian stage of the type section in Russia and like the latter is the Zone of *Pseudoschuergerina*. The Leonardian correlates with the Artinskian but has a larger and more varied fauna. The Guadalupian cannot be correlated in detail with the upper part of the Russian section because the latter is largely unfossiliferous. The Ochoan is entirely unfossiliferous except for a thin zone near the top (in the Rustler dolostone) which contains productid (brachiopods) and a few other types of Paleozoic invertebrates.

**Leonardian time** Facies changes in this region are spectacular. During Early Permian time (Wolfcampian Epoch) the region was a broad shallow marine basin in which a rich and varied fauna thrived. By Leonardian time three distinct basins (Fig 3) were subsiding more rapidly than the surrounding area which became a broad shelf occupied by wide shallow lagoons. Light colored fossiliferous limestones (Victoria Peak limestone) then accumulated on the shelves while black limestone and black shale accumulated in the basins. Evidently the threshold to the basins which was somewhere in Mexico was then so shallow that wa-

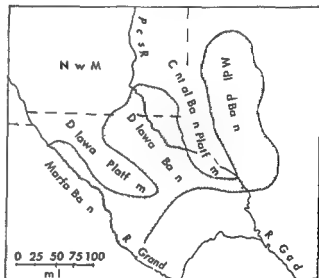


Fig 3 Permian basins of West Texas (After P. B. K. G.)

ter in the basins was density stratified and the bottom was stagnant and foul so that almost no benthonic organisms could survive. The Bone Spring black limestone is generally barren of fossils.

**Guadalupian time** During Guadalupian time the basins continued to deepen and as the climate became strongly arid surface water flowed radially out of the basins onto the platform to replace the water lost by evaporation in the shallow lagoons. As a result a narrow lime bank grew up along the margins of the basins to form the great Capitan Reef. With this development three contrasting facies accumulated simultaneously: (1) basin or pothole deposits under normal marine conditions, (2) reef and reef talus, and (3) lagoon or lagoonal deposits. Figure 4 shows the complex relations within the Leonardian and Guadalupian deposits along the face of the Guadalupian. The massive deposits of reef talus were derived from the growth in front of the reef. The dip slope into the basin became finer and more sandy and grade

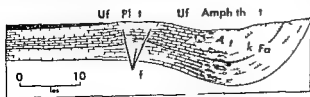


Fig 2 Idealized section showing the relationship of the Artinskian to the limestones of the Ufa Platform

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Oklahoma the Permian Basin of the Soviet Union  
and the Upper Permian of Au tral a See INSECTA  
FOSSILS

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cordaites—of the m i t oal swamp declined and  
the co lifer ad dnced to a d minant po ition

Of the vertebrate the labyrinth nd amphibi  
ans we e common and varied but the reptiles  
showed the mo t significant ad nces Reptiles  
have been found in ab ndance in the l we r half of  
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## Permittivity

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## Perovskite

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of thick glacio marine deposits of this sort each of the western basins was occupied by a warmer marine incursion in which widespread and so siliferous but rather thin calcareous formations accumulated (Fossil Cliff limestone of Irwin River Basin Callytharra limestone of Gascoyne and Minilya basins and Nura Nura limestone of the Kimberley District). Their faunas are of Artinskian age. In both the Irwin River and Gascoyne basins glacial erratics recur for some distance above this limestone horizon which proves that glaciation persisted here at least into early Artinskian time.

In southeastern Australia where Permian rocks are very thick they have been subdivided into four major units a lower and an upper marine unit and Lower and Upper Coal Measures. Glacial erratics occur in both of the marine units.

The Permian strata in Germany comprise two major units. The lower is the Rothliegendes sandstone consisting of nonmarine redbeds the upper is the Zechstein formation consisting of marine lime stones and shales which grade upward into salt and gypsum. The potash deposits at Stassfurt lie within the upper part of the Zechstein. The magnesian limestone of England is a thin west ern tongue of the Zechstein limestone.

**Permian glaciation.** Early in Permian time large areas in the southern continents were covered by glacial ice. The widespread Dwyka tillite indicates that most of Africa south of latitude 23°S was ice covered. It includes abundant striated boulders and in places rests on a spectacularly grooved and striated floor. In its northern outcrops (northern Karoo Natal and Zululand) it is a typical ground moraine resting on an undulating pre Permian surface but farther south it thickens greatly and grades into a glacio marine deposit formed of material dropped from floating icebergs. Orientation of glacial tracts and distribution of boulders from known source areas indicate that the ice moved westward into the province of South Africa and generally south from the Transvaal. N. Boutakoff (1940) has reported that tillite (presumably Dwyka) is widespread in the Congo Basin even within 4° of the Equator.

Glacial deposits are also widespread in western and southern Australia and in Tasmania. In western Australia such deposits originally covered an area of about 200,000 square miles. Locally in the Canning Basin the glacial deposits are typical ground moraine resting on a striated floor but for the most part they are glacio fluvial in western Australia and occur within a thick marine sequence (the Lyons formation of the Irwin and Canning Basins and the Kungurien and Grant Range formations of the Kimberley District).

Permian glacial deposits are also widespread in South America (in Uruguay in the Precordillera of northern Argentina and Bolivia and in southern Brazil). An extensive ice sheet in India is recorded by the Talchir tillite of the Salt Range and central India (Rewar Province). The ice sheet is believed to have stretched for some 600 miles from east to

west and 1000 miles from south to north and to have moved northward into the Salt Range region.

Curiously no glaciation is known to have occurred elsewhere in the Northern Hemisphere.

**Date of ice age.** In each of the regions mentioned above the glacial deposits are at the base of the Permian section and the immediately overlying siliferous formations are of Artinskian age; hence it appears that the glaciation occurred early in the period during either Sakmarian or early Artinskian time. In India the Talchir tillite is overlain by the Lower Productus limestone which bears a prolific marine fauna including fusulines of Artinskian age. In South Africa the tillite is succeeded by the Ecce formation which bears vertebrate fossils of mid Permian age and in western Australia the glacio marine deposits include the ammonite *Metalegoceras jacksoni* which is correlated with the Lower Permian or early Artinskian faunas of Timor.

The reptiles in the Ecce formation of South Africa indicate a mild climate and the marine faunas of the Lower Productus limestone of India. It appears therefore that the glacial episode occupied but a relatively short part of Permian time. The glacial deposits of South America are not well dated by fossils and have been classified by most South American geologists as Upper Carboniferous but because their occurrence so closely resembles that of Australian glacial deposits it seems highly probable that they are of Early Permian age.

**The *Glossopteris flora*.** Throughout the glaciated regions of the Southern Hemisphere the nonmarine Permian formations are commonly characterized by the tongue ferns *Glossopteris* and *Gangamopteris*. In South Africa *Glossopteris* has been found between the glaciated floor and the Dwyka tillite and in numerous places in India South Africa and Australia it distinctly appears to have been found in the tillite. It is therefore believed to have been adapted to a cold climate. Unfortunately the biologic relations of the peculiar plants are still uncertain.

**Permian deserts.** Desert conditions probably were more widespread in the Permian than at any other time before the late Cenozoic. The arid deposits of salt and anhydrite in the Permian Basins of West Texas and New Mexico the salt of Kansas and the extensive deposits of dune sand in the eastern part of the Colorado Plateau indicate a great arid basin in the west central part of the United States. Ralph King has estimated that if it required 300,000 years to precipitate the saline of the Ohioan Erie the rate of evaporation over the entire basin must have averaged 95 ft per year which is only about 2 ft less than it is in the modern Death Valley of California.

Similar conditions must have existed during deposition of the Kungurien salt in the Permian Basin of the Soviet Union. Wetter. F. Pope was also of the opinion of great aridity as indicated by the thick salt deposit at Stassfurt. C. many and widely spread dune sands in Germany and England

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[ 4 ]  
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## Perpetual motion

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sory mineral in basic igneous rocks particularly those containing nepheline or leucite. It is also found in basic pegmatites and in lime tene at the contacts of basic or alkaline intrusions. Perovskite may form as an alteration product of sphene and ilmenite. See ILMENITE, SPHENE, TITANIUM.

Barium titanate which is structurally similar to perovskite is important as a component in modern electronic equipment such as transducer. See BARIUM TITANATE. [C S HU]

## Peroxide

A chemical compound which contains the peroxy ( $-O-O-$ ) group which may be considered to be a derivative of hydrogen peroxide ( $HO-OH$ ). An organic (or inorganic) peroxide is one in which some organic (or inorganic) substituent has replaced one or both hydrogen. Peroxides are used in such diverse reactions as oxidation, synthesis, polymerization, and oxygen generation. Inorganic peroxides include persulfates, hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ), sodium peroxide, bivalent metal peroxides, and  $H_2O_2$  addition compounds. Organic peroxides include per(oxy)acetic acid, dibenzoyl peroxide, and cumene peroxide.

**Inorganic peroxides.** Peroxydisulfate, familiarly called persulfates, are produced by electrolytic oxidation of aqueous sulfuric acid or ammonium bisulfate. Persulfuric acid ( $H_2SO_8$ ) is not used commercially as such. Ammonium persulfate, a white solid, is used as a polymerization catalyst, dyestuff oxidant, metal etchant, and laboratory oxidant. The potassium salt is used extensively in the manufacture of styrene-butadiene synthetic rubber. Smaller quantities are used in hair bleaches.

Peroxymonosulfates, also called monoperoxides, are salts of peroxymonosulfuric acid (Caro's acid). The latter, made from  $H_2O$  and sulfuric acid, is a powerful oxidant and bleach; the properties are shared by the salts. The acid can be used for making wool resistant to shrinkage; the salts are effective bleaching agents for domestic laundering.

Peroxydiphosphates, analogous to peroxydisulfates, have been prepared by electrolytic oxidation of concentrated phosphate solutions. No major technical uses have been reported. Peroxydicarbonates have also been made electrolytically.

**Hydrogen peroxide.** The most widely used peroxide compound is hydrogen peroxide, a waterlike liquid manufactured as aqueous solutions of 35–90%  $H_2O_2$  by weight, essentially anhydrous  $H_2O_2$  has recently become commercially available. Annual production in the United States exceeds 50,000,000 lb (100% basis). Selling price in commercial quantities is about 50 cents per lb of contained  $H_2O_2$ .  $H_2O_2$  is not combustible; water is a safe diluent and solvent. With organic compounds,  $H_2O_2$  can form detonable mixtures; industrial processes guard against this by generating in directions for safe handling and storage of  $H_2O_2$  are available from producers, government agencies, and trade associations.

Hydrogen peroxide is manufactured by electrolytic and organic oxidation processes. The former involve electrolytic production of the peroxydisulfate intermediate, followed by steam hydrolysis to  $H_2O_2$ , with regeneration of the original sulfuric acid or ammonium bisulfate raw material. One organic process uses an anthraquinone dissolved in organic solvents. The quinone is catalytically hydrogenated to the hydroquinone; subsequent aeration of the latter regenerates the quinone with simultaneous formation of  $H_2O_2$ . The  $H_2O_2$  is water extracted and concentrated; the quinone is recycled for reconversion to hydroquinone. A second organic process uses liquid isopropyl alcohol which is oxidized at moderate temperatures and pressures to  $H_2O_2$  and acetone coproducts. After distillation of the acetone and unreacted alcohol, the residual  $H_2O_2$  is concentrated.

Hydrogen peroxide applications include commercial bleaching, dye oxidation, manufacture of organic and peroxy chemical, and power generation. Bleaching outlets consume more than one half of the  $H_2O_2$  produced. The outlets include textile mill bleaching of practically all wool and cellulose fibers as well as of major quantities of synthetics and paper and pulp mill bleaching of groundwood and chemical pulps (see BLEACHING). Organic applications include manufacture of epoxides and glycols from unsaturated petroleum hydrocarbons, terpenes, and natural fatty oils. The resultant products are valuable plasticizers, stabilizers, diluents, and solvents for vinyl plastics and protective coating formulation. Production of nitrogen organic chemicals may become feasible via low-cost  $H_2O_2$ . Synthetic glycerol production using captured  $H_2O_2$  has been planned by one  $H_2O_2$  producer.  $H_2O_2$  outlets for manufacture of peroxides include inorganic compounds such as sodium perborate and organic compounds such as peracetic acid and dibenzoyl peroxide. Certain peroxides, such as that of sodium, are more economically produced by air oxidation. Power generation applications include use in specialized propulsion units for aircraft, missiles, torpedoes, and submarines. The hot oxygen-steam mixture from catalytically decomposed  $H_2O_2$  powers the feed pumps of many large liquid propellant rockets.

**Metal peroxides.** Sodium peroxide ( $Na_2O_2$ ) is a yellowish powder; the peroxide produced in the largest amount for direct sale. Annual production in the United States is about 12,000,000 lb. Manufacture is via a two-stage reaction of the elements. The sodium monoxide first formed in the reaction of liquid or solid sodium and dried in rotary steel burners is converted to the peroxide by additional reaction at 250–400°C. Selling price is about 20 cents per lb. From their respective available oxygen contents,  $Na_2O_2$  and  $H_2O_2$  are competitive in price. Aqueous solutions of  $Na_2O_2$  are essentially equivalent to a mixture of caustic soda and  $H_2O_2$ . Contact of the powder with skin or combustible materials should be avoided to minimize the danger of burns or fire. In case of fire, salt is used in

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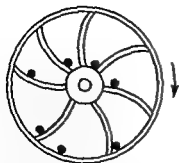


Fig 2 A seventeenth century model for perpetual motion based on the notion that the rotation is due to the balls rolling in the grooved spokes will be faster on the descending side of the wheel than on the other side

having such an engine became evident with the establishment near the middle of the nineteenth century of the second law of thermodynamics. It is this principle and not the principle of conservation of energy that rules out perpetual motion of the second kind, for there is nothing in the energy principle that denies the possibility of converting heat completely into work.

The term perpetual motion of the third kind is sometimes used to refer to the continuous motion that a mechanism would have if it were completely freed from the action of all nonconservative forces that is forces such as those of friction which extract energy irreversibly from a mechanical system. Experience shows that such forces can be reduced as by lubrication in the case of friction but can never be eliminated. If they could, continuous motion of a mechanism would be possible without violation of either the principle of conservation of energy or the second law of thermodynamics. See CONSERVATION OF ENERGY THERMODYNAMIC PRINCIPLES [DER]

**Bibliography** H. Dircks, *Perpetuum Mobile* 2 vols. 1861-1870. M. W. Zeman, *Heat and Thermodynamics* 4th ed. 1957.

## Perseus

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[CSY]

## Persian melon

A long keeping variety of muskmelon *Cucumis melo* of the plant order Campanulales. The fruit is large (6-8 lb) globular and without uterine it has dark green skin and thin abundant netting. The flesh is firm thick orange-colored and sweet with mild but distinctive flavor. Persian melons require a long warm season and are highly susceptible to diseases which are intensified by rain or high humidity. Except in the great central valley of California the Persian melon is little grown in the United States. The average annual farm value in the United States for the period 1949-1957 was about \$1 000 000. See CAMPANULALES MELON GROWING MUSKMELON [VRB]

## Personality theory

Personality as a technical concept is inferred from consistencies in the behavior of the individual in different situations and over extended periods of time and growth. These consistencies in behavior are usually of three kinds. The first relates to the goals the person strives for and the situations he finds rewarding or threatening. A second form of consistency is the characteristic style with which a person carries out his goal directed enterprise—his persistency, his manner of learning and thinking, the manner in which he handles obstacles and frustrations, and how he resolves conflicts of need and interest. Finally there is a consistency in the expression of affect—a person's intensity of feeling, his mood swings, his energy level, the degree to which he is strongly driven toward goals and the extent to which he is sensitive to internal compared to external stimulation and demands.

**Behavior consistencies.** To account for these consistencies, psychology postulates certain processes assumed to be operating in the individual in interaction with the environment in which he lives.

**Goal striving.** To account for consistencies in goal striving, for example, various versions of the concept of need drive or interest are employed. When the person is found to be striving consistently and persistently for certain end states that appear to bring cycles of behavior to a temporary close, once they are attained, one infers that there is a need for the attainment of that end state, whether or not the person can put this need into words. The various need states are inferred from the behavior of any single individual are assumed to be independent of one another and are related in certain characteristic ways. For example, when the attainment of one goal is blocked, the person characteristically substitutes another form of goal striving in its place (displacement reaction). Or needs may conflict with one another so that the behavior related to the attainment of one goal preclude behavior necessary for attainment of another. For example, the conflict between behavior directed toward flight (depression) and fear arousal and the behavior in the individual.



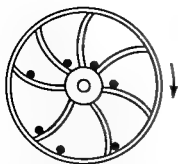


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t r the study of emotional states wh ch do not yield  
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Study approaches The following approaches to  
per onality study are e lected as repre entative of  
some of the major twentieth-century trend th  
psychodynamic appoach the cultural approach  
th appoach is learn ng theory the organ m c  
and elf concept appr ache the factorial trait  
approach and th typological con t tutional ap  
pr ach

Psychodyn mic approa h The basic tenet of the  
psychodyn mic approach is that the individual s  
g al tr ng and mot vati ns are the core f om  
wh ch per nality theory m t be b l t The etol  
ogy of mot es their de elopment and tran forma  
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vidual omp i the ba i are f per nality study  
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of th ch ld as dr en by a ba i phy l g cal nu  
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mp l m gratification and the parents p erate as  
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t n f all late growth The fam ly unit and the  
family interrelati n h p ar thu the ba ic arena  
for de elop ng f e h g a d m ges about the self  
and mod of h nd ng ne d and c at tute th  
fo ndati n of the later l f e t l e

I ady i g to the demand of parents act ng as  
v ca of ciety c rta a f th hild n eds a e  
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form that a m ac ptable Wh n uch rep e  
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ty de l ps in wh ch ub qu nt t mpat on may  
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nd u a l ble to the pe son A nd s h re  
p e ed u ou needs th e may g ow ch ac  
t stru tu es that may l t e t r n out to be th nu  
cl u of n u t y mptoms su ha a o g e ated



concern for sexual morality in a person who has severely repressed his own sexual impulses early in development. In the end noted here psychodynamic theories make a continuum between normal growth and neurotic reactions, the latter being exaggerated versions of usual patterns of growth surrounded by an excess of inhibition and defense. See NEUROSIS.

In such theories particularly in recent years a more prominent place has been given to the role of ego function, the composing of conflicts in a manner that avoid the danger of neurosis. This development in theory comes in part as a reaction against the criticism that psychodynamic theories were too closely modeled upon the observation of neurotic symptoms in clinical practice with an attendant failure to consider in detail the processes of normal growth. Closer study of normal growth has indicated that there are patterns of coping that seem to be relatively independent of early difficulties suffered by the child in his first stages of socialization. Here too there is a reaction against the early excessively genetic/historical/family-centered approach of the psychodynamic theories. In any case the early statement of psychodynamic theory, notably by Sigmund Freud and his followers, had in its turn tended to overreact to the nineteenth century view of rational voluntarism and substituted an overly rigid conception of determinism (see FREUDIANISM). The trend since 1940 has been in the direction of reconsidering some of the views better to deal with the evidently creative aspects of growth and with the conditions that produce them. Among such studies are those that are designed to determine the kinds of family atmospheres that lead to healthy ego development such as the development of flexible attitudes, egalitarian orientation toward others and so on.

**Cultural approach.** The psychodynamic approach to personality has stimulated the interests of anthropologists working on early childhood socialization and has led to studies of the relationship between personality and culture. The original emphasis of the studies was stimulated by Freud's insights and by the approach of the psychoanalytically oriented anthropologists such as R. Linton, A. Kardiner, and C. DuBois was again upon the early development of basic personality structure. The central assumption was that certain allegedly invariant features of childhood discipline, such as a mode of weaning and independence training, had the effect of creating a basic personality structure unique to a culture and later experience and training only elaborated upon this structure. From the point of view of culture the underlying axiom was that in ritualized form, ritual and myths were projective system that grew out of or in any event, matched the basic personality pattern created in the culture.

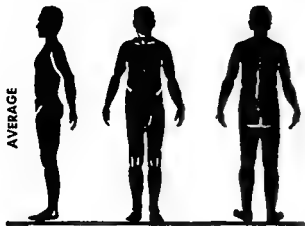
Just as in psychodynamic theory in general in the studies of personality and culture there has been a shift away from the deterministic genetics that placed so much emphasis upon the early ef-

fects of family life on the life pattern of the person. One finds today more emphasis upon the personality-forming effect of the role and position that a person fills in a society including role occupied during adult life and there is at present considerable interest in the topic of adult socialization, particularly in the effects on personality produced by occupational life. Typical of such studies are the observations of N. Miller and G. E. Swan on showing the manner in which entrepreneurial families and bureaucratic families, defined in terms of the organization in which the father works, place differential emphasis upon spontaneity, adjustment to social requirements in the group, so too in the work of D. Rieman, E. Erikson, T. Parson, and other much more account is taken of the continuing socialization of the individual after he has entered a life of his own away from his family of origin. Erikson, for example, speaks of the stage of development of man, each representing a set of problems to be solved, pointing out that failure to solve the problem of an earlier stage makes it difficult to cope with problems of a later stage. Thus if the child does not deal successfully with the problems of coming to trust others as an infant it is highly likely that there will be a recurrent crisis in dealing with the problems of achieving a sense of autonomy later. And given the failure of the two stage difficulties of realizing a sense of competence still later are compounded. But where there is a relative degree of success at each stage the growing child or adolescent becomes increasingly free to be influenced by the myriad of social forces that may operate upon him from the society.

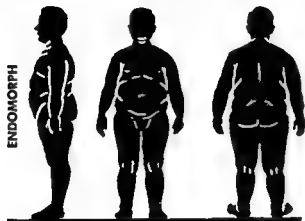
**Learning theory approach.** The work of learning theorists who have turned their attention to personality such as N. E. Miller, J. Dollard, and O. Mowrer has been strongly influenced by Freud and shares many of his basic postulates. Miller and Dollard particularly have attempted a fusion of some fundamental features of the psychodynamic approach with learning theory and with experimentation in the area of the psychology of learning (the work of C. L. Hull). Direct punishment and reinforcement are conceptualized by them as the four fundamental features of learning. The processes by which behavior patterns including neurotic symptom are acquired and reinforced are analyzed in terms of the details of the learning process. The development of personality is the learning of generalization and discrimination of behavioral responses so that the person may adjust to his environment in terms of the distinction and equivalent of that as relevant discrimination (see LEARNING THEORY). Much of the theory of neurosis and psychotherapy is an extension of the earlier work of the Freudian school, but in applying experimental laboratory procedure including the experimental method to the learning hypothesis about personality adjustment and repression. Applications of learning models to learning (C. Hull, F. C. Tolman, and work of others).



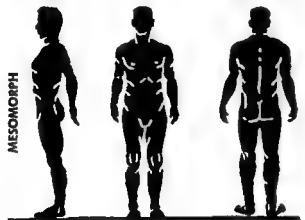
AVERAGE



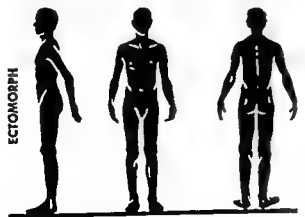
ENDOMORPH



MESOMORPH



ECTOMORPH



Sheldon's system of body types. It takes ectomorph, mesomorph, and endomorph and shows as well as the average of all who has about equal proportions of all the components (From C. T. McGrew, *Intellectual and Moral Development*, McGraw-Hill, 1956).

his problems (omatotonia) while the ectomorph tends toward formal and theoretical formulations and intellectualization of problems (cerebrotonia). The endomorph tends to be geared more toward feeling and is relatively passive with respect both to action and cognitive activity (viscerotonia). Significant correlational results have been obtained by this method perhaps indicating that certain constitutional origins of personality functioning have been overlooked by the psychodynamic approach.

Another approach to the typological study of personality comes out of the German Romantic tradition representing a development of the ideal types approach of such thinkers as W. Dilthey and the antiscientific proponents of the *Geisteswissenschaft* science of mind. A typical approach is that of E. Spranger whose typological analysis of value orientations has provided the basis for one of the most widely used and productive personality tests of the present time: the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values. Spranger's six ideal value types were the social, religious, economic, theoretical, esthetic, and political. The Study of Values attempts to assign a score of possible points among them on the basis of a choice of multiple responses to questions relating to preference for various activities and rewards. To a certain degree, C. G. Jung also represents this approach in his formulation of types that are polar opposites: introversion/extraversion, sensation/intuition, thinking/feeling. Jung introduces a provocative but largely untested notion of complementary functioning that is rather different from most theories that the exercise of one extreme on a continuum sets up tensions for moving in the direction of the other extreme so that the extra-ert is likely to become more introverted as he goes on in life.

**Personality assessment.** The general purpose in individual personality assessment is to determine as accurately and efficiently as possible what a particular person is like with respect to some criteria. The theoretical assumptions made about the nature of personality determine both the framework in which this general question is cast and the operations selected in seeking answers. For example, if unconscious aspects of personality are considered the vital determinants of behavior, the variables and methods selected for personality study and assessment will focus on these. Or if the emphasis is on self-concept, the assessment emphasis is likely to be on phenomenological self-descriptions. The specific purposes of the assessment determine the decisions which must be made on the basis of the assessment procedure (for example, selection for executive training, for group psychotherapy, for admission to or release from a mental hospital) further constrain the procedures employed. Thus assessment procedures are used both for research and applied purposes depending upon the choice of criterion. In the former the aim is to discover valid and generalizable relationships between aspects of personality functioning and other factors.

(For example, so that the culture group interaction and on). In the latter the aim is to reach specific dimensions about individuals in industrial military educational and clinical settings and the methods should be as varied as the setting.

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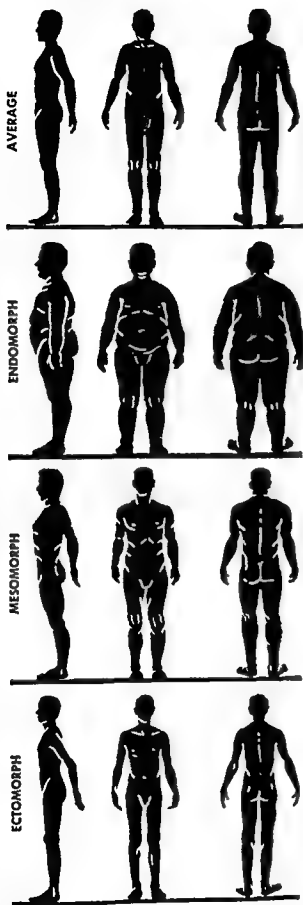
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 e d u a d R M C a t t R 16 P F T t T h s a p

proach is closely linked with the trait factorial approach to personality assessment. The procedure employed to construct distributionally adequate test items for an intuitive basis then to reduce the set of items by a formal or informal factorial method that get at independent latent structures underlying response to the items then to select by techniques of item analysis the questions that represent the best expression of the various factors or clusters. The various trait clusters that can be tested by this method are many. Reliability is assured by this method although the same problems of validity exist here as in the actuarial approach to projective test that is finding an agreed upon performance measure against which to place response scores. Intelligence test and their component factors represent but one example of this approach to assessment which because of the pressure of practical application tend to be seen erroneously as a different approach to assessment. The principal criticisms leveled against this approach are that it is lacking in theoretical framework predictive of the psychodynamic aspects of personality and that it is empirically too taxonomic in spirit and insufficiently concerned with explanation.

**Rating and ranking methods** Rating and ranking methods are closely akin to the psychometric testing approach. Here a set of judges is armed with a criterion and asked to rank or rate a group of testees on the basis of the products produced by these testees (for example opinion attitudes and expressions) in terms of the criterion. Reliability depends on the judge and interjudge consistency although there are special problems of error judgement which has the hall effect to be controlled and the problem of validity as regards as in the psychometric testing method. Special considerations of this procedure such as some other techniques and the Q sort that has been developed in recent years in reaction to the direct method of group ranking and rating method.

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r t e s o f r e p o n s to t e s t t e m s T h c e p t i s  
th s h e e n t l y a c t u a l l o d s t b u t o n a l i n n a t u r e  
p l a c i n g t h e i d d u a l p e r f r m m e i n e l a t o n t o  
m a r r a y i p e f r m c e a m a d e b y o t h e r s r a t h e r  
th t t n g n t s t m s o f t h e c m y o f t h n  
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g e r a l e d b u n n f n t n g n w h t t h i n d  
i d d u l r e p e t a n u n g n d t h

The natural world approach to personality



Sheldon's system of body types. Etienne de Creton, *Psychology of the Body* (1956).  
 as well as the average and the extreme types (Fraser, 1956).  
 C. T. Morgan, L. T. Alder, J. L. Intod, et al.  
 in *Psychology* (M. G. Hawill, 1956)

his problems (somatonia) while the ectomorph tends toward formal and theoretical formulations and intellectualization of problems (cerebrotonia). The endomorph tends to be geared more toward feeling and is relatively passive with respect both to action and cognitive activity (viscero-tonia). Significant correlational results have been obtained by this method perhaps indicating that certain constitutional origins of personality functioning have been overlooked by the psychodynamic approach.

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**Commensurable motions** If the mean motion of the disturbed planet were exactly a submultiple say  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the mean motion of the disturbing planet the maximum perturbation produced by their close approach would always occur in the same part of the disturbed orbit. The displacement in position of the disturbed planet would increase with each coincidence until the character of the orbit became modified to the point where exact commensurability of the mean motions would cease to exist.

Because the solar system is middle aged cosmically speaking few examples of commensurability of mean motions exist today. None is found in the motions of the major planets. Cases of near commensurability exist which give rise to long period periodic terms of large amplitude. As an example the periods of Jupiter and Saturn are nearly in the ratio of 2.5. Thus after nearly 5 revolutions of Jupiter the two planets return to approximately the same juxtaposition. Their line of coincidence however sweeps slowly around Jupiter's orbit completing a circuit in about 850 years and thus producing a perturbation of this period.

Among the four inner planets the periodic perturbations are small amounting in orbital longitude at most to 25 for Mercury, 5 for Venus, 1 for Earth and 2' for Mars. Periodic perturbations of the outer planets are larger reaching in the case of the long period terms to 30' for Jupiter, 70 for Saturn, 60' for Uranus and 35 for Neptune.

Because the amplitude of a periodic perturbation depends on the mass of the disturbing planet observational measurement of this amplitude affords a method of determining the disturbing mass. For the planets Mercury, Venus and Pluto which do not have satellites this is the only method of determining the mass. As a consequence of the mutual perturbations of the planets the distance of a planet from the Sun is on the average decreased by the action of planets closer to the Sun and increased by planets farther from the Sun; this mean effect represents a perturbation of the radius vector with a constant value.

The orbits of the minor planets are affected in varying degree by the attractions of the major planets. Those orbits passing close to Jupiter suffer large perturbation which if the mean motions were commensurable with that of Jupiter would be augmented at each close approach until the trajectories were sufficiently altered to reduce the commensurability. In the overall distribution of mean motions of the minor planets there are noticeable gaps at the points where the period would be nearly an exact submultiple ( $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots$ ) of the period of Jupiter. In cases of near commensurability observational determination of the amplitude of the long period perturbation affords a method for measuring the mass of Jupiter. A small group of minor planets called the Trojan asteroids has been completely captured by Jupiter that they circulate about the 60 points which form

equilateral triangles with Jupiter and the Sun. See TROJAN PLANETS.

**Effect on comets** Planetary perturbations also affect the orbits of comets. Studies of the motion of Halley's comet indicate that the time from one perihelion passage to the next has varied by almost five years because of perturbations. Most comets approach the Sun at nearly parabolic speeds in randomly oriented orbits but if a comet approaches close to one of the more massive major planets the planet may so alter the trajectory that the comet pursues an elliptical orbit thereafter. A number of short period comets whose orbits agree only in that they all pass close to Jupiter illustrate the perturbing effect of this planet on cometary orbits.

**Nongravitational causes** Material forming the tails of comets is subject to a nongravitational type of perturbation. This rarefied matter given off by the head of the comet is forced into a trajectory away from the Sun by the pressure of solar radiation.

Associated with many of the periodic comets are swarms of smaller particles which appear as meteors upon collision with the upper atmosphere of the Earth (see METEOR). The density of these swarms is so tenuous that they cannot hold themselves together by their own gravitation and planetary perturbations of speed and direction soon spread the components completely around the orbit. The annual meteor showers such as the Perseids reflect this dispersal of particles along the orbit. The effect of the Earth's attraction on a meteor trajectory depends on the relative velocity; that is whether the Earth is overtaking the meteor or meeting it head on. Once the meteor enters the upper reaches of the Earth's atmosphere its motion is subject to a nongravitational perturbation caused by atmospheric drag. This resistance to the passage of the particle is evidenced by the trail of incandescent gas and vapor which forms until the particle is consumed or continues in its trajectory greatly decelerated.

**Perturbations of satellite orbits** The motions of planetary satellites, natural and artificial, reflect both gravitational and nongravitational perturbations. The centrifugal force arising from the rotation of a planet causes a deformation of the line of figure. In such a case the central mass does not attract as if it were concentrated at its center. For a close satellite the principal perturbation arises from this attraction of this equatorial bulge. The effect of this attraction on an otherwise undisturbed satellite orbit is a gradual regression of the line of node on the equatorial plane and a rotation on the line of apside. Both variations vary with the inclination of the satellite orbit. Nearer the primary the tidal force may become so great that a satellite would literally be torn to pieces. For a fixed satellite the same density of the planet it orbits within which the disruptive perturbation occurs is about two and one-half times the radius of the planet (see SATURN).



$\lambda_1 - \lambda_2 = -\epsilon \lambda_2$ . If it is assumed that the perturbation of  $\lambda$  is linear and constant,  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are then known and the solution of these equations can be obtained. If a sequence of  $\epsilon$  is chosen,  $\lambda_1$  converges,  $\lambda_2$  will converge to a solution of the problem. For an exact solution problem, the perturbation must be modified. The first approximation is  $\lambda_1 = (\lambda - \lambda_2) \epsilon_1 = -\epsilon \lambda_2 \epsilon_1$ . It is convenient for the second iteration of the perturbation that the perturbation  $\lambda_2$  can be expressed in terms of the first approximation  $\lambda_1$  and the iteration  $\epsilon_1$  and  $\epsilon_2$ .

In a related and more familiar formulation (such as in the perturbation of a matrix) the perturbation  $\lambda_2$  can be expressed in terms of the first approximation  $\lambda_1$  and the iteration  $\epsilon_1$  and  $\epsilon_2$ . The perturbation  $\lambda_2$  can be expressed in terms of the first approximation  $\lambda_1$  and the iteration  $\epsilon_1$  and  $\epsilon_2$ . The perturbation  $\lambda_2$  can be expressed in terms of the first approximation  $\lambda_1$  and the iteration  $\epsilon_1$  and  $\epsilon_2$ .

The iteration method can be generalized in two ways. First, it is not necessary to use  $\epsilon_1$  and  $\epsilon_2$  as the perturbation. It is possible to use other functions as the perturbation. Second, it is not necessary to use  $\epsilon_1$  and  $\epsilon_2$  as the perturbation. It is possible to use other functions as the perturbation. Second, it is not necessary to use  $\epsilon_1$  and  $\epsilon_2$  as the perturbation. It is possible to use other functions as the perturbation.

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If the coefficient is zero, because the coefficient is zero, the eigenvalue  $\lambda$  is the solution of an equation. The secular equation is the determinant of the matrix  $A - \lambda I$ . The determinant is the secular determinant. An example is the secular determinant of the unperturbed problem is  $\lambda^2 - 2\lambda + 1 = 0$ . The secular determinant is the secular determinant. An example is the secular determinant of the unperturbed problem is  $\lambda^2 - 2\lambda + 1 = 0$ .

$$\begin{aligned} C(\lambda - \lambda_1) - C(\lambda_2) &= 0 \\ C(\lambda_2) - C(\lambda - \lambda_1) &= 0 \\ C(\lambda_2) - C(\lambda - \lambda_1) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

and so on. The eigenvalue  $\lambda$  is the solution of an equation. The secular equation is the determinant of the matrix  $A - \lambda I$ . The secular equation is the determinant of the matrix  $A - \lambda I$ .

Degenerate perturbation theory. A degenerate perturbation theory is a perturbation theory in which the unperturbed system has degenerate eigenvalues. The secular equation is the determinant of the matrix  $A - \lambda I$ . The secular equation is the determinant of the matrix  $A - \lambda I$ .

can be employed a the initial approximation  $\psi_0$  in the iterative method. It is often the case that the determinant of the pole is sufficient for the evaluation of the matrix elements of the perturbation.

[HFE]

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## Perturbation (quantum mechanics)

Perturbation technique is used in quantum mechanics in many problems to obtain approximate solutions to problems. The accuracy of quantum mechanical problems can be solved exactly. The technique used a numerical and mathematically. It is only a few words are needed here. For background material see QUANTUM MECHANICS. QUANTUM THEORY. NONRELATIVISTIC. Although the discussion is confined to the domain of quantum mechanics, the quantum perturbation theory concerned also the study with solutions to Schrödinger's equation. The relevant important applications to quantum electrodynamics and quantum field theory. See QUANTUM ELECTRODYNAMICS. QUANTUM FIELD THEORY.

In many problems, Schrödinger's equation has the form  $H\psi = (H_0 + H')\psi = E\psi$ , the desired eigenvalue  $E(\lambda)$  and eigenfunction  $\psi(\lambda)$  are in the domain of the perturbation  $H'$  and the unperturbed eigenvalue  $E_0 = E(\lambda=0)$  and the unperturbed eigenfunction  $\psi_0 = \psi(\lambda=0)$ . The unperturbed eigenvalue  $E_0$  and the unperturbed eigenfunction  $\psi_0$  are known. The perturbation  $H'$  is assumed to be small compared with  $H_0$  so that  $E(\lambda)$  and  $\psi(\lambda)$  can be expanded as power series in  $\lambda$ . Substituting these series into the Schrödinger equation and equating equal terms in powers of  $\lambda$  to the unperturbed eigenvalue  $E_0$  and the unperturbed eigenfunction  $\psi_0$  gives the unperturbed eigenvalue  $E_0$  and the unperturbed eigenfunction  $\psi_0$ . The perturbation  $H'$  is assumed to be small compared with  $H_0$  so that  $E(\lambda)$  and  $\psi(\lambda)$  can be expanded as power series in  $\lambda$ . Substituting these series into the Schrödinger equation and equating equal terms in powers of  $\lambda$  to the unperturbed eigenvalue  $E_0$  and the unperturbed eigenfunction  $\psi_0$  gives the unperturbed eigenvalue  $E_0$  and the unperturbed eigenfunction  $\psi_0$ . The perturbation  $H'$  is assumed to be small compared with  $H_0$  so that  $E(\lambda)$  and  $\psi(\lambda)$  can be expanded as power series in  $\lambda$ . Substituting these series into the Schrödinger equation and equating equal terms in powers of  $\lambda$  to the unperturbed eigenvalue  $E_0$  and the unperturbed eigenfunction  $\psi_0$  gives the unperturbed eigenvalue  $E_0$  and the unperturbed eigenfunction  $\psi_0$ .

$$\lambda^0 \{ - \epsilon \} \ll 1$$

Let  $H = H_0 + H'$  be the matrix elements of the unperturbed perturbation. The function  $\psi_0$  is the unperturbed eigenfunction. The unperturbed eigenvalue  $E_0$  and the unperturbed eigenfunction  $\psi_0$  are known. The perturbation  $H'$  is assumed to be small compared with  $H_0$  so that  $E(\lambda)$  and  $\psi(\lambda)$  can be expanded as power series in  $\lambda$ . Substituting these series into the Schrödinger equation and equating equal terms in powers of  $\lambda$  to the unperturbed eigenvalue  $E_0$  and the unperturbed eigenfunction  $\psi_0$  gives the unperturbed eigenvalue  $E_0$  and the unperturbed eigenfunction  $\psi_0$ . The perturbation  $H'$  is assumed to be small compared with  $H_0$  so that  $E(\lambda)$  and  $\psi(\lambda)$  can be expanded as power series in  $\lambda$ . Substituting these series into the Schrödinger equation and equating equal terms in powers of  $\lambda$  to the unperturbed eigenvalue  $E_0$  and the unperturbed eigenfunction  $\psi_0$  gives the unperturbed eigenvalue  $E_0$  and the unperturbed eigenfunction  $\psi_0$ .

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The term proportional to  $\lambda^1$  in the series expansion of  $\lambda^0$  yields the first Born approximation to the scattering cross section. The term proportional to  $\lambda^2$  yields the second Born approximation etc. The emergence of a Born approximation appears to converge best when  $\lambda^1/E \ll 1$  that is when the incident kinetic energy is high. Exceptions to this rule do occur however especially in many particle collisions. See SCATTERING EXPERIMENTS. ATOMIC AND MOLECULAR SCATTERING EXPERIMENTS. NUCLEAR.

The WKB (Wentzel-Kramers-Brillouin) method is a technique for solving the Schrödinger equation in the asymptotic limit  $\hbar \rightarrow 0$ . The phase  $\Phi$  satisfies the Hamilton-Jacobi equation. The method of connecting the connection between classical and quantum mechanics (see HAMILTON-JACOBI THEORY). The practical utility of the next (WKB) approximation giving the quantal correction to the classical limit  $\hbar = 0$  is almost exclusively confined to one-dimensional problems. The WKB approximation is valid when  $d\lambda/dx \ll 1$  where  $\lambda(x) = h/p(x) = h/2m[E - V(x)]^{1/2}$  is the wavelength of the de Broglie wave. The length  $F$  of the numerical function is the WKB approximation yields estimates of the penetrability of a barrier and of the phase shifts in scattering problems. For bound state eigenfunctions the WKB approximation yields a correction to the pre-Schrodinger equation  $\nabla^2 \psi + k^2 \psi = 0$ .

The following points pertain to time-dependent problems. When the perturbation is a time-dependent variable  $U(t)$ , one usually wishes to compute the transition probability and the initial stationary state  $\psi_0$  to the final state  $\psi_f$ . The second approximation is adapted to potential  $U(t)$  which has a duration of a brief interval  $\Delta t$  and appears to be valid when  $\omega \Delta t \ll 1$  where  $\omega = E_f - E_0$  is the energy difference between the initial and final states. The approximation is useful for example to determine the probability of radiation of energy of a Hamiltonian will yield a doubly ionized He atom. For lowly hanging potentials ( $\omega \Delta t \gg 1$ ) the doublet approximation number which appears in the discrete quantum number characterizing the transition will remain constant as the potential hangs often is useful. See PERTURBATION (ASTRONOMY). PERTURBATION (MATHEMATICS).

[E.C.]

Bibliography S. QUANTUM MECHANICS. QUANTUM THEORY. NONRELATIVISTIC.

## Pesticide

A material used to control or destroy insect disease and weeds. Crop losses in the United States caused by insects and weeds have been estimated to total more than \$12,000,000,000 annually. The loss of crop and animal production is the total annual value of the loss of production in the United States. See AGRICULTURAL CHEMISTRY. AGRICULTURE.

TURE FUMIGANT FUNGICIDE AND FUNGICIDE  
HERBICIDE INSECTICIDE MITICIDE NEMATOCIDE  
RODENTICIDE [C A H O D]

## Petrification

One of the most remarkable mechanisms by which the remains of extinct organisms are preserved in the fossil record is the process of petrification. In petrifications though chiefly in the case of plants rather than animals there is retained relatively undeformed the original shape and topography of the tissues and occasionally even minute cytological details.

**Formation** The term petrification was adopted as a scientific term before knowledge existed of the geochemical mechanism or processes involved. It was formerly widely believed that in the formation of a petrification the organic matter of the organism or tissue involved was replaced molecule by molecule with mineral material entering in solution in percolating ground water. It is now evident that what actually happens is that the mineral fills cell lumens and the intercellular interstices of cell walls with insoluble salts depositing from solution. Petrification is hence a form of mineral emplacement or embedding by which the organic residues are filled with solid substance which infiltrate in solution. The most common substances involved in petrifications are silica  $\text{SiO}_2$  and calcium carbonate  $\text{CaCO}_3$  (calcite). Occasionally phosphate minerals pyrite and hematite and other less common minerals comprise all or part of the petrification matrix. The most perfect preservation of original structure is found in siliceous petrifications. The clear transparent or microcrystalline silica renders excellent optical properties to thin sections of such fossils and makes possible the use of transmitted light in microscopic study in much the same manner as with recent biological material.

**Calcified types** An unusual type of calcareous petrification known as coal balls occurs in Carboniferous coal seams of parts of Europe and North America. They comprise nodular usually spheroidal or ovoid masses of relatively uncompressed plant tissues completely permeated with calcite or dolomite. They represent irregularly spaced and localized areas of mineral precipitation with resulting petrification of the coal-forming plant debris. Mineralization occurred while the coal was still in the peat stage. After mineralization the plant parts so infiltrated failed to compress so that their structure and cellular organization are preserved. Much of what we know of the internal organization and anatomy of ancient plants and the evolution of the groups both vegetative and reproductive is derived from petrifications which occur throughout the geologic record from Precambrian to recent. Coal balls though limited to the Carboniferous have provided an unusually comprehensive body of knowledge on the morphology and anatomy of the rich and varied vegetation of this unit of geologic time. See COAL BALLS.

**Silicified types** Despite the widespread abundance of petrifications (chiefly of plants but also

of the hard parts of animals) throughout the geologic column there is very little known of the geochemical mechanisms which induce their formation. The problem is particularly baffling in the case of silicification in many examples of which entire trunks of trees may become completely mineralized with no visible evidence of the sequence of changes following sedimentation. The fact that silicified plant parts often show virtually no physical distortion or compression indicates that the process occurs relatively rapidly. On the other hand the amount of silica in ground water ( $\pm 70$ –100 parts per million) is so small that the process must proceed with extreme efficiency. It is probable that decay processes must have preceded to at least the early stages since the histology of silicified (also calcified) plant tissues exhibits varying stages of degradative alteration to the extremes of nearly total loss of structure. The percentage by weight of organic matter retained in silicified wood may range from a few hundredths of 1% to more than 15%. Ordinarily it is only a few per cent. See FOSSIL PALEOBOTANY PETRIFIED FORESTS [ESB].

## Petrified forests

Exposures containing appreciable numbers of petrified tree trunks either standing upright or lying prostrate in the enclosing sedimentary rocks are sometimes called fossil forests. The best known examples are the widely known Petrified Forest of Arizona and the fossil forests near Cairo, Egypt near Calistoga, California near Vantage Bridge, Washington and in Yellowstone Park, Wyoming.

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Upright petrified tree specimens, Redwood Valley, Northern California, Wyoming

the ar colored layers of the Chinl formati n The wood s mai ly agat zed or changed t claced ny and h w a unusu lly a eda d b aut f lcol ra m of ed br wn y llow a d purpl s The m r ly of the p trified tr es are Con f e s (A au ra : ylon) d tantly rel t d to th a suca an p m of South Am i and Aut ala One huge log o r 100 ft lo m ha been left by er n cr ss a r i about 40 ft w d e f r m ng a natural pkn wn s Agat Bridge Here a d th e are exj os e of sh le beds c nt t ng many impr on f le s and seeds rep esent ng a humid subtropi al f est bo d r ng the st ms f a low nd a anna

An eve mo e e te e fo l f rest li s in the rhea t r n p rtion of Yellow t ne Natl nal Park Wy mi g H e the major ty f the petrified tee t u k are f end still tand ng up ght in p rtions of organ l growth in th enclo g med um of ol ca c tufts and bre ca Even more unus al m the occ r nce here of n t merely a ngle f l f o e t but a ert cal s cce s on f o er 20 buried f rests —one abo e the other—in a thckne s of ov r 2000 ft of olca c debris The fos lized trees and the impres on of lea es, twigs needles and co es in as ocated ash laye s indicate a f r t of o r 100 spec m of warm tempe at to subtr p c l tee typ c l of a h mid lowl nd envr ment. See PALEOBOTANY ee ls VEGETATION 20 23 [E D]

## Petrochemical

O e f l g numbe of b tant lly p m hem al ub t e p odu ed om m r ally f m p trole m r tural g Ord na ly the term de n t n lude hyd o r i n f iels a d l b c nts n r chem als prod ed by the s ths the p e or ha d l g th p t leum raw mate l S Petrochem r oducts O g n ompound mp e the g at l k a w ll as n mbe f pet ochem s but e al g n c mp unds (amm car bon b la m ulf and l yd ogen p rox de) also are p odu ed n l geam t

Ths pet ochem cals a e n t t be reg rded a a p r t ls type r ls of hem cal c all of th m h m bee d many t ll re mad f m other raw m te l f ex m pl h n e and lyle f r m l g l r l f r m fat ethyl lco h l f m ag ulu l p and a lfu f m de p o t f the lement r f r m met l ores

Some h m l m mad from the raw ma t al ar now m d ent l alm t e t r e l f m p t l m t r l g Examples a e a t g n lly d ed f m w o d d l l t on and t h f f r m t t f g ult r l p r odu t t h l l d t g l l m d f m thyl al oh l p odu ed by f r m t t n d h tad n mad f m th l l h l d g W l d War f a d s a t p g p m a bo th l f m thyl l c h o l d w g W l l Wa l l l s 1916 d r ed almo t m pl t l y f m pet f m

P trole m al l d al m n p d cts never bel kn w ex p s l f l b r t r v m unt h a w r p y l al h l th l d g l y of th r s l l l h l l all l lcoh l p r h l hydr n m thyl l t l l l n d a l t

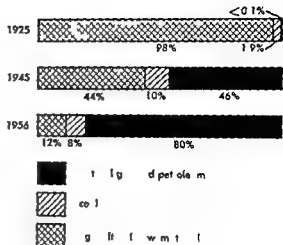


Fig 1 S e f rg c h m c l f the U fied St tes

**Growth and present size** The over all trend to petroleum and natural gas as the predominant source of organ c hemicals in the United States m shown in Fig 1 Two of the ino ganic petrochem cal (ammonia and carb n black) also dominate the r respecti e f l ds

Over 40 000 000 000 lb f petrochemicals are p duced an u lly about 27% f the tot l chem cal p duction in the United States (orga ic and in ga c) a d from ne th d to ver ne half of ts t tal dolla value d pend ng upon th b m sed P t hemic ls m n fa tured in the Unt d States make up o er 8 of all lphat es 10% of all n rg s and 54% of lla omats About 3% of all c ude ltu d n the Unt d St te s u ed as petr h t al f d tock

Th re w r no pet ch m cals befo e 1920 as de from carb n bl ck which h been mad in the Unt d States f m nat ral ga n e 187 The growth of petr ch m ls since 1920 (Fig ) has h en mo t p ctacular in th f l d of al phat which a count f r well o e f al f of th pres nt to t l olume of petroch m cals a d by fa th l rge t numbe of th n a lly 3000 pet ochem cal de ed compo nds n w p duced Ths growth i due ma nly to the following f e t c r

1 The ab ndan e and lately low o t f c u d land natu l m

2 Ad anc s made in the t h n o l gy of petroleu m refin g spu ed e pec ally by the demand f r m tor ga l ne nd vation ga ol e The e m l d mo e effi nt fracti nal d illat n and other ep m tion proc s nt part cul ly for the lower b lling c st t nt and the d elopment of con er p oces e to ne ease ga ol ne quantity and q al ty nclud g thermal a d cat lyt crack ng hyd ogenat on d l yd og t ror p lymerizat n i zat n a d alkyl t on Th e eparat n and n n p oces es ha e m d n ail ble as by prod m ha e b en r dily adapted t th tents l p oduct n f la g quantiti f ind d u l hyd oca bon o m pl m t u m quite su table a h m l w mat r l

TURE FUMIGANT FUNGICIDAL AND FUNGICIDE  
HERBICIDE INSECTICIDE MITICIDE NEMATOCIDE  
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Upright petrified tree trunks in the Petrified Forest National Park, Arizona.

the v l red lay rs of th Ch le fo m t on The  
ood : ma ly ag tized r cha ged to halcedony  
a d h w s a n ully d and beautiful col a  
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LEOBOTANY s e l VEGETATION ZONES [E D]

### Petrochemical

O fal g n mber f bst nt lly p e chem  
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h d l g th p t le m aw m te al S e PETRO  
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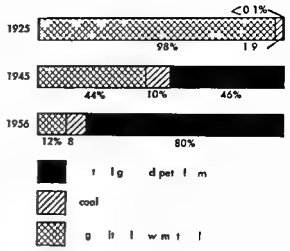


Fig 1 So f g ic ch m l l the U t d St s

**Growth and present size** The o er all trend to petroleum and n t u r l gas as the predom : nt so rce f organ c chemical in the United States is shown in Fig 1 Tw of the ino ganic petrochemi cals ( mmon a d carbon black) also dominate their e pect e field

Over 40 000 000 000 lb f pet ochem cals are prod ced a n lly about 27% of the tot l chemi al p odu t n in the United St te ( g nic and g c ) d f r m ne th d t o er ne half f ts t al d l l l depe ds g p n the bas s ed Petr ch m cals ma u ctur d i the United States make p o 85% f l liphatis 10% of l n g n s nd 54% of all a omatics About 3% of all crude l sed in the U t d State s u ed s p t r chem c l f ed t k

Th e we e n petr chemi als before 19 0 a de f o m ca b n bl ck whi h s been made in the U t d St te from atur l s since 1872 The growth f pet ochem s ls in e 1920 (Fig 2) h s be m t spe t ac la in the field f liph t s whi h a c t f o w llo er h l f the p ent tot l olum f pet ochemi al nd by far the la ge t umbe f th nea ly 3000 petr hem al deri d ompo d w p o d ced Th growth i de m a nly t the f l l w g f e fact rs l Th ab d and elati ely l w cost f rud la d atu al ga

2. Ad an e made in the te h ology f pet o l m refi g purr d espe lly by th dema d f m t g s l e a d a t n g l ne These n l demo f f i c e t f t on l d st llati nd the s p a t p oces es part ularly for the l we bol i g c st tu nts d th developm nt f n proces est i e gas l ne q antity and quality cl d g th r m l d c talytic cracki g hyd og at i dehyd gen u polym e izati n i m zati d llylats These sep t n nd c p oces s h e m d a lable s by p o d cts h e b e ead ly d pted t th t t al p r d t f l r g q anties f i d i d l hyd oc bo mple m xt res q t ut ble h m l w m t l





3 A demand for chemicals that in many cases could not be supplied in sufficient amounts or with sufficient assurance of a steady supply and price structure from other sources—coal wood or agricultural products

4 Concentration of end uses in the relatively young and more rapidly expanding sectors of the economy for example automotive and aviation chemical products such as antifreeze and anti knock compounds and brake fluids synthetic fibers plastics and resins and protective coatings

5 Research mindedness leading to products not before known commercially ( some of which have found extensive use ) also to lower cost processes for established products often greatly expanding their application A special characteristic of petrochemical research has been the development of a series of related derivatives from the primary petrochemicals in order to establish the widest possible market

**Raw materials and products** The major operations of the petrochemical industry are summarized below for each of the principal raw materials. In addition to the products shown, large numbers are made in smaller amounts.

Natural gas varies widely in composition but consists predominantly of methane with successively smaller amounts of higher paraffin hydrocarbons. Hydrogen sulfide, carbon dioxide and nitrogen are sometimes present. The principal petrochemicals derived from natural gas or its methane content are shown in Fig. 3 and Table 1.

**Inorganic petrochemicals** Ammonia is by far the largest volume petrochemical and natural gas methane is by far the largest source of the hydrogen although hydrogen from refinery sources such

as catalytic reforming is growing in use. A large proportion is converted into ammonium nitrate and other ammonium salts and into urea. The largest use of the gas is as ammonia itself, as fertilizer.

Carbon black is made almost entirely by partial combustion with insufficient air supply using natural gas in the old channel process and either natural gas or highly aromatic petroleum oil in the newer furnace process. The latter process (accounting for about 75% of the carbon black production) gives a product suitable for use in synthetic rubber. See CARBON BLACK.

**Aliphatic organic compounds** Methane is the chief source of methanol and hydrogen cyanide and an important source of chloromethanes and acetylene

Paraffin hydrocarbon raw materials heavier than methane are mainly ethane propane butane and pentane. The first two especially ethane are cracked thermally in large quantities to produce ethylene (and propylene) as discussed below. Propane is also nitrated commercially to a mixture of nitroparaffins which has found small scale use as solvents. Propane and butane are oxidized directly in fairly large amounts to formaldehyde and acetaldehyde with minor amounts of other oxygenated hydrocarbons. Small amounts of pentanes are chlorinated; the chloropentanes are converted into substances such as amyl alcohols and amyl acetates.

Ethylene is consumed in larger amounts for aliphatic petrochemicals than is any other hydrocarbon (about 4 000 000 000 lb/year). About half comes from refinery thermal and catalytic cracking operations conducted primarily to increase the

Table 1. Petrochemicals from methanol.

B d r e s d	Prod d lly X10 <sup>6</sup> lb	Uses
Asm P tr l mao es M h h droge 79 <sup>er</sup> R & ryh droge 4 <sup>er</sup> Elect lyl col l 17 <sup>er</sup>	6600	Agr l t l l m l ( mm ) 6 F bers pl cs 6 I d l plos es 5 Oth 6
C bo bl k H l ga ~50 <sup>er</sup> L q dpe rol m ~50 <sup>er</sup>	1800	Fl bbe compou d g 96 Fign m tall gy 4
M th P troles m sou cea M h 63 <sup>er</sup> Propa o b ta 7 <sup>er</sup> Coal 30 <sup>er</sup>	1700	F rm l d hyd (m ly ( es ) 36 M h rol free 6 Oth l col m Ethyl 49
Chlorom tl es M th hlors t 50 <sup>er</sup> Oth soc cea 50 <sup>er</sup>	500	Sol m l m bl fl ova bo f f gers rmal
Acet l P l m(m ly m h l ~3 <sup>er</sup> Calc m b d bal ce	640	V l hlor d ceta 30 Chloro re ( co- pr ) 6 Chloroe h l es l Acr l l 8 O h 4
Hydroge cy d D t f Comm ce d ta p pot from m h p hably >70 <sup>er</sup>	~150	Acrylon t l (w h th l d or yl ) 6 Ad po l 7 O h ll

La est figura el bl



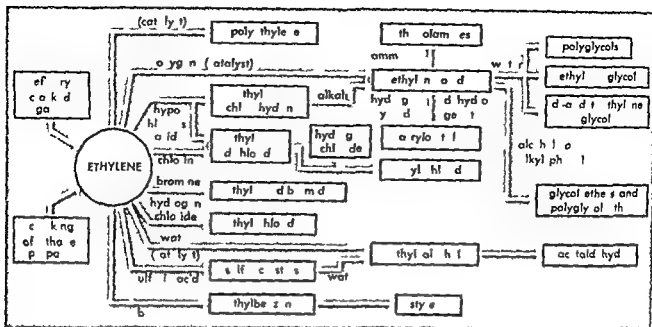


Fig 4 Petrochemicals from ethylene

A striking example of the impact of petrochemicals on both natural products and other synthetics is the capture of more than three quarters of the soap market by synthetic detergents especially the

Table 3 Petrochemicals from propylene and the butylenes

Butylenes	Produced (X10 <sup>6</sup> lb)	Uses
Isopropyl alcohol F m p y l ~100 <sup>00</sup>	100	Alcohol (hyd hyd o- t) 46 Oth h m l 13 Sol t d m ac 41 D t t dodecyl N (t m ) 90 y l t y l poly g l t h r s Ph l d Gly l p h l o- hyd l l y l l l l M l y p y l gly t h h m l E p e c t d f i l m l t m l l d t r u
C m Allyl h l d	170 100	
Pr p y l d	80	
P l y p y l	5 m l l b w g	
B t d F m b t y l e s ( r y k e d g a ) 60 <sup>00</sup> From b d h o c 30 <sup>00</sup> M s c h y d o c s b o k g 10 <sup>00</sup>	1540	Sty e-b t d b l 90 A c r l t r i s o-b d b b 3 Sty b t a d p a t t t 3 A d p a t t l d h m l y l e d m f g l 2 O t l M l y m t h y l t h l D t t a p l r s
Sec d y b t y l l h l O l h l ( C l d h y d ) s o o c t y l l o o k l	250	
B t y l b b e (c o p o l y m f s o b y l d s o- P ) D s o b t y l T s o b t y l P l y s o b y l	40 40 110 40	I t b e s m e c h c o l r u b b e g o o d M l y d t g t s p l t r s A d t e a l t a l e c l b l d d t e a S o l t
T t y b t y l l h l	30	

Last fig. l b l

sulfonate from propylene tetramer benzene alkylate with a corresponding drop in the production of glycerol as a by product of soap manufacture. The gap in glycerol supplies has been filled by the introduction of petrochemical glycerol. Also the assurance of a steady supply of glycerol from readily available propylene has been an important factor in the growth of alkyl resins.

The butylenes (butenes) are in strong demand for the synthesis of high octane gasoline. Chemical uses account for about 2,100,000,000 lb annually of which manufacture of butadiene overshadows all others. Source of the butylenes is predominantly cracking conducted primarily for gasoline with ad hoc cracking of butane and miscellaneous hydrocarbons a minor but growing factor. The principal derivatives of the normal butylenes and of isobutylene are shown in Fig 5 and Table 3.

The oxo process (reaction of olefins with carbon monoxide and hydrogen) is used in a few plants. It provides aldehydes from olefins of one less carbon number and from the ethyl hydrogenation the corresponding primary alcohols. Also in one case at least (using butyraldehyde from propylene) it provides by oxidation on the corresponding acid (butyric for cellulose acetate butyrate). The principal alcohols obtained are branched chain octyl from the heptene polymer of propylene and butylene (Fig 5), branched chain nonyl from diisobutylene and branched chain dodecyl and tridecyl from propylene trimer and tetramer respectively.

Cyclic organic compounds. The coal tar industry has been the traditional supplier of the cyclic compounds but since 1940 petroleum has become the chief source of many of them. The principal petroleum derived cyclics are benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, cyclohexane and their derivatives (Fig 6 and Table 4) together with two refinery products, naphthalene and alkylphenol. Figure 6 shows only the more important of the cyclic derivatives thousands of benzenoid derivatives for

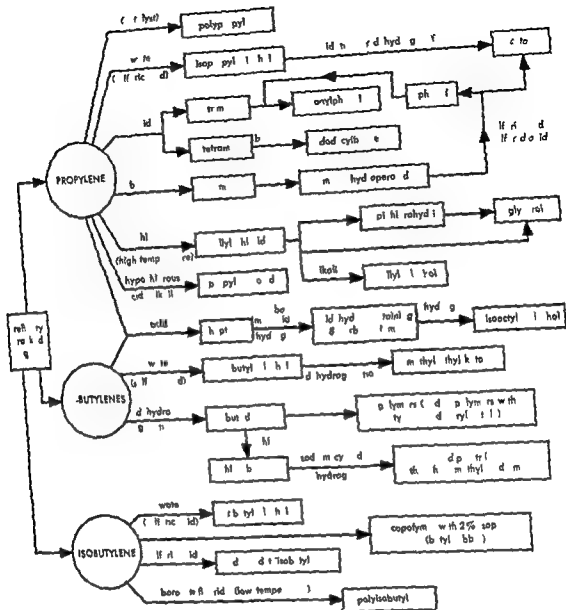


Fig 5 Petrochem if mp pyl d the b tyl

example, the new and highly developed polymer Al polyethylene. This is the most well known of the plastics. It is a white, waxy solid that can be made in many different forms. It is used in a wide variety of products, from plastic bottles to electrical insulation. The most common type of polyethylene is low-density polyethylene (LDPE), which is used in plastic bags and bottles. High-density polyethylene (HDPE) is used in more rigid products like milk jugs and pipes. Polypropylene is another important plastic, known for its strength and resistance to chemicals. It is used in a wide range of applications, from automotive parts to medical devices. The petrochemical industry is constantly developing new polymers to meet the needs of various industries. The most recent developments include biodegradable plastics and high-strength composites. These new materials are expected to revolutionize many industries in the coming years.

the most important of these are the alkenes, which are used to produce a wide variety of plastics and chemicals. The most common alkene is ethylene, which is used to produce polyethylene. Other important alkenes include propylene, butylene, and isobutylene. These alkenes are produced by cracking petroleum products. The petrochemical industry is a major part of the global economy, and it is expected to continue to grow in the future. The industry is constantly developing new products and processes to meet the needs of the world. The most recent developments include the production of bio-based petrochemicals and the use of advanced technologies in the refining process. These new developments are expected to make the petrochemical industry more sustainable and efficient in the future.

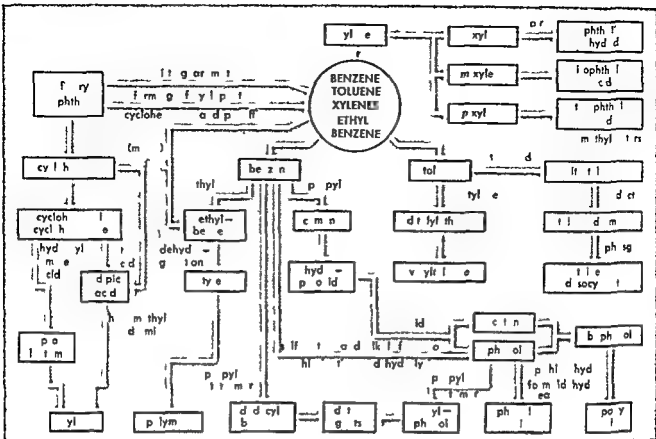


Fig 6 Cyclic petrochemical

Production from petroleum is about 36 000 000 lb annually

Table 4 Cyclic petrochemicals

Product	Production (10 <sup>6</sup> lb)	Uses
<b>Benzene</b>	4.0	Styrene 41, Plastics 41, (Fertilizer) 4, Phthalic 17, Syntetic 17, Miscellaneous 31, Solvents 11, Oils 11, Coatings 11, Aromatic 9, Isomers 9, (Phthalic) 11, Other 11, Styrene 1100
<b>Toluene</b>	14.0	(Fertilizer) 4, Fertilizer 8, Toluene 11, Solvents 11, Oils 11, Coatings 11, Aromatic 9, Isomers 9, (Phthalic) 11, Other 11, Styrene 1100
<b>Xylene</b>	9.0	(Fertilizer) 4, Fertilizer 8, Toluene 11, Solvents 11, Oils 11, Coatings 11, Aromatic 9, Isomers 9, (Phthalic) 11, Other 11, Styrene 1100
<b>Ethylbenzene</b>	1260	Styrene 41, Plastics 41, (Fertilizer) 4, Phthalic 17, Syntetic 17, Miscellaneous 31, Solvents 11, Oils 11, Coatings 11, Aromatic 9, Isomers 9, (Phthalic) 11, Other 11, Styrene 1100
<b>Cyclohexane</b>	460	Polymer 41, (Fertilizer) 4, Phthalic 17, Syntetic 17, Miscellaneous 31, Solvents 11, Oils 11, Coatings 11, Aromatic 9, Isomers 9, (Phthalic) 11, Other 11, Styrene 1100

La est figure 1 bl  
t Th m hyl d m eq ed mes mostly from pe-  
t l m d d but d

**Petrochemical sulfur** Sulfur is obtained by the oxidation of hydrogen sulfide which occurs in some natural gases and most refinery gases particularly in the off gas from processes to reduce the sulfur content of petroleum liquids (for example hydrosulfurization). Petrochemical sulfur production is about 1 440 000 000 lb annually (elemental from refinery gases 590 000 000 elemental from natural gas 660 000 000 recovered as sulfuric acid from refinery gases 190 000 000 on a sulfur basis). This is about 8% of all sulfur production in the United States.

The total production of all petrochemicals shown as basic products or basic derivatives in the tables and text is about 24 000 000 000 lb. The 40 000 000 000 lb mentioned earlier and shown in Fig 2 is a gross amount in which owing to the nature of the statistical information some atoms are counted more than once as they appear in successive important products. The total effort expended in petrochemical manufacture is probably better represented by this gross amount. See **PETROLEUM PROCESSING** [HUGHES].

**Bibliography** W L Faith II & H Keyes and R L Clark *Industrial Chemicals* 2d ed 1957  
H F Goldstein *The Petroleum Chemicals Industry* 2d ed 1958

### Petrofabric analysis

A statistical analysis used to determine the arrangement in space (orientation) of rock structures both on a large scale in rock masses such as planar and linear structures in sedimentary

rocks [ a f l w : neous int u o a d t eam  
deposi t and l small s ale internal on  
it nts f rock such a pebb l incl ded fra  
me t nd m er lgr i ori t d the by shape  
r by th r yst l l t t c t u t u e

A y m m t f a natu l bje t i re ord d in  
the po to that the obje t u me n r s p u e  
to th m eme t. P e f e d o r e t a t i o n w h i s a  
t t t c a l p r i n o f num r b j e c t s f o n e  
p o t i n t t t a r n d m a r a m e t n  
p c i d t e d r t o and t y p e of m o e  
m n t t h a s e d t h u f e r e d r n e m e n t  
T h e f a b r i c a l y s s m a y l e a d t o a c g n i t o  
o f t h e k m a s t c p r e c e s b y w h i h o k a e  
f r m d r d f r m e d

Field measurements In the field l l v i b l e  
t r u t u o f t h e x p o s e d r o c k g e n e r a l  
m a r d i n a m n y o u t c p s a p s b l e T h e  
r e s l t f t h e s e f i l d m a s r e m e t a c n u s f  
t h e d a n d n c l a t o f r o u p l a a r n d  
l r t u t e T h e m e m e n t s a r e t h n  
p l t t e d n a S c h m i d t t w h i c h a n e q u a l a r e a  
r l p r j e c t t f 10-c m a d T h e p l n a  
t r t u a r e p l o t t e d a g r e a t c l e L e t u c  
t ( a r s i n t e c t n g p l n o r a x o f f l d s )  
a p l t t e d a p o n t T h i a t i s l a g n i f i c a n e o f



t h e m e a s u r e m e n t s i s e m p h a s i z e d b y d r a w i n g  
c o n t u l n s ( r o p e l e t h ) a o n d t h e a r a o f e q u a l  
d e s t y o f d i t b u t i o n o f p o n t ( e e i l l u t r a t i n )  
T h e p a t t e r n o f p r e f e r r e d r n t a t i o n w i l l t i u b  
o m e e i d e t a a s s o f m a x i m m c o n c e n t r a t n  
P a t t e r n s f r m e l b y i n d i d a l e t s o f m e a u e m e n t  
m e n t f o m e r a l p a r t s o f o n e o u t c r o p o r f m  
n u t r o p t o a n o t h e r a r e c m p a r e d t o d e t e r m i n e  
t h n f o r m t y o f p a t t e r n t h o i g h t o t h e a r e a i n  
t i g a t e d F a b r i c d i a g a m t h a t h o w u n i f o r m i t y  
o f p t t r n r e c m b i d i n t e t t t a l a g  
g e g a t T h r u l t n g f a b c d i a g a m s t h e n  
d u e d a z e s s i c i e n t l y t o i n e r t i t a t t h e c r c t  
s p o t o n t h e g e o l o m m p o f t h e w h o l e a r i n r  
d r t s h w t h n i s m s t r u c t u r e s o t h a t f r t o f  
t h e a r e A n a p t u s p e p a r e d h w t h a r e s  
t h a t h a v e a s i m i l a r t y p e f t r u t u r c o n t r a t  
w t h o t h e r m e a h a v i g a d f e r e n t t y p e

S u p r p e d s t r u c t r e s o c c u r i m a n r e g i n s f  
t r o n g l y d e f o r m e d c k s T h e r e p r e s e n t e d b y  
d g m s f o l o w i n g d i f f e n t t r e d o f f o l d r e  
u p p d d n o e a n d t h e y m d i a g r a m S u c h  
s u p e p e d t u c t e s k n w n a s o e r p r t c  
t h e n b e f u r t h e r t u d d b y a g e o m e t r i c l r o t a t n  
i f t h e d i a g r a m b y w h c h t h e i n l i n t i o a r f i t  
t e d u t t a h r i z o n t a l p i t n a p r o c e s s k n o w n  
a s n r o l l g T h e t a t o n i s c r e d u t r o n d  
t h e a i s f o r m e d f t h m o t r e c e t d e f o r m n  
m m t s U n d e l y s t r t r e p r d u c e d b y  
e l e m m t s a t h e n b e c o g d

Study of hand specimens I r e o n f o b c r e  
o o m p l e r o c k t r u c t p e n t a t i o n e h a n d  
p e m e n l l t e d f m r e p e n t a t i o n  
p o u e f t e r t h e g e o g r a p h c d i n t e h a v e b e e r  
m a k d n t h e p e m e n s u h w a y t h a t a c h  
p e c i m e n a b e t p n t h e l a s h a t r y n e x a t l y  
t h e s a m p t t h t t h a d i n t h e f i l d B y t h e u  
f u t a b l e n t m e t t e c u r e n t h b m e a s  
r d t h e e d m n s o n w h i h i n s m e r c k s g  
m o e s t f o y t r u c t u r l p t t r n t h a n t h a t  
b t n d f r o m f i e l d d t a w h c h a r e c m m n l y  
t w o - d m n o n a l

Study of thin sections T h t u d y f t h n e  
u n d e t h e m o p e g t l l f u r t h e r a l u  
a b l n f o r m t o b t m v e m n t r e c o f d n t h e  
r k f a b r A r r a g m e t o f t h k m a k i g m i  
e l s b y h p e n d a l o b y r y l l l t t c t i  
t r i d t m e d b y m a n s f a p t o w p h c  
m i o p g p p e d w t h a n i e l t g s D  
g a m s f r e p r e d b y t h s t h n g g e v e m h u  
u p t e d s f r m a t n a b o u t t h e e f f e c t s o f m v  
m n t n k f a b I n c k s t o o f i n e - g r e d t o  
t l y u d t h e m c r o o p e x s a n l y s c n  
e t h e d e r e l f r m a t n [ E B K ]

P b l g p h y H W F b n S t u t a l P e  
t l g v f D e f m d R o c k 2 d e d 1949 E. B  
K p l a n d E. I g S t u t u l P t o l g y G e o l  
S o c A m M r n 6 1938

## Petrographic province

A r g n w h h t h g n e o u k s f r m e d d  
g l m t d p r d h o w r t a m m u n t y f  
h r c t e ( c h m l m a l g a l m p r t l g

P f b i c d g m ( ) R d m g m s f f l d  
u p g l i g o c k ( b ) H g h d g f  
p f e d n e f f e r y t l l g p h  
q u a r t z i n s h e a d g e O s f 158  
q u a r t z p r c t l l y f l l w t h t i d o t  
h d i a g m t h m m m o n t i n b g w t h i n  
t h e b l k a i n t h t ( F o m B S d G f g  
l d d G e o l S o n u l g 1930)

Production from petroleum is about 36 000 000 lb annually

B	so	pod	ta	d	Pod	ly	U	ov
					×10	lb		
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		phth		>65 <sup>ov</sup>				
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	hy	l			<3 <sup>ov</sup>			

The total production of all petrochemicals shown as basic products or basic derivatives in the table and text is about 24 000 000 000 lb. The 40 000 000 000 lb mentioned earlier and shown in Fig. 2 is a gross amount in which owing to the nature of the statistical information some atoms are counted more than once as they appear in successive important products. The total effort expended in petrochemical manufacture is probably better represented by this gross amount. See PETROLEUM PROCESSING [HCV TWE]

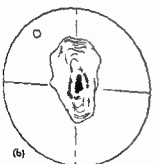
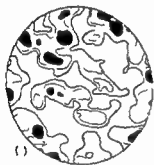
### Petrofabric analysis

A statistical analysis used to determine the arrangement in space (orientation) of rock structure both on a large scale in rock mass such as planar and linear structure in sedimentary

rock 1 a flow, gneou 1 tru 1 n a d tr am  
d po 1 c, and also o a small se l internal n  
t t e s f ock s ch pebb l incl ded f ag  
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t a t u l p e f e n c o f u m s b j e c t s f r o n e  
p o i t m c o n t r a t t a r a d o m a r r a n g e m e n t i n  
p i n d t e s the d e c t n and t p e o f m o e  
m t t h t c e d the p e f e r e d a r r a n g e m e n t  
Th f f a b c a l y m v l e a d t r e c o g n i t i o n  
f t h k i e m t p r o c e s b y w h i c h r o c k s a r e  
f r m d o d l r m e d

Field measurements In the f i l d a l l i b l  
t r u t e s o f the e p o e d o c a g e n a r e a r e  
m a e d i a m a y t r p s p o b l e Th  
e u l t o f t h e s e f i e l d m e a u e m e t i a e n s f  
t h t d a n d i n l n a t o f v r p l a n r a n d  
l i r t u c t e s Th e s e m e r e m e n t s r e t h e n  
p l t t e d n a S c h m d t e t w h i c h i a n e q u a l a e a  
u l a r p j e c t n t o f 10-c m r d Th p l a  
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p l t t e d p o n t Th e s t a t i a l s g n f i c a c e o f



ff b d g m ( ) R a d m g m t f f l d  
p g m g o c k ( b ) H g h d g f  
p f d t t c r y l l g p h  
q u a r t z h d g t O u t o f 158  
q r t z p t l y R l w h t t d e a f  
t h d g m t h m m e t b g w i t h  
h b l k a t h ( f n s S d G f g e  
k d d G s t S p g V l o g 1930)

the mea urem nt i e m p h a z e d f r a w n g  
c o n t u r l i n ( i n p l t h ) a r o u n d the a r a o f e q u  
d e n t v f d i t r i b u t i o f p o i t ( s e i l l u t r a t n )  
The p a t t e n o f p r e f e r e d o r i e n t a t i o w i l l t h e n b e  
c o m e i d n t a r e a o f m a m i m e c e n t r i n  
P a t t e r n f r m e d b i n d i a d u a l t f m a r e m  
n t f m e v e r a l p e t t e n e u t r p r f r m  
n e o u t e r p t a n t h e a e c o m p a r e d t d e t r m n  
the u n f r m t f p a t t e n t h r u g h u t the a r a n  
e s t a b l i s h e d f r m d a g r a m t h t h w u n f r m t  
f p a t t e n a r e c o m b i n e d i t o n e t i t a l a g  
g e s t The r e s l i n g f a b r d i g r a m i t h e n r e  
d u e d i n t e u s i l t i t e r t i t a t t h r e c t  
p o t o n the g r o i m p f t h e w h e a r a i n t  
d e r t h w t h u n f r m t r u t s f r t h a t p a t t  
the a r A m a p t h u p e p r e l h o w the a r a  
t h t h e a m i l r t y p e f t r u t r n c o n t r i  
t h t h r a e s b a n g a d f e r e n t t p e

Superposed textures occur in many of the  
strongly deformed rocks. These are represented in  
diagram h w i g d f f r e t t r n t f f l l a  
p e p o s e d i n n e a n d the a m d i a g r a m c h  
p e r p o s e d t r u t e s k n w n u s v e r p r i a n  
t h e n b e f u r t h e r t u d e d b a g e o m e t r i a l r o t a t i o n  
o f t h e d i a g r a m t w h i c h the l n a t i o n a e f i t  
t e o d o t t a h r z o t a l p o t n, a p o c e s k n w n  
a u n r o l l g Th t t t n c a r r i e d o n t a o u d  
the a x f r m e d t h m t e c n t f r m n g  
m m t U d l g t u t e s p r o d e d f  
e t r m m n t a t h e n b e r e c o g n i z e d

Study of hand specimens I g o l o g i c a l  
complex ock t r u t r e s e p e n t a t i e h n f  
p e r m n a l l e c t e d f r o m r e p e s e n t i e e  
p o u e s a f t e r the g e o g r a p h i c c o r d n t e a h e b e e n  
m r k e d n t h p e c u m t h w a y t h t e a h  
p e u m e n c a n b e e t p i n the l a b o r t r y t h  
t h s a m e p o u n t h t t h a d n the f i e l d t h u s e  
f a t b l e t r u m e t t i c t s n t h n b e m a u  
u e d t h e e d m n n g, w h i h i n c o m r o c k s g  
a m r s t f a t t r u t r a l p a t t e r n t h a t t  
o b t m e d f o m f i l d d a t w h h a r e c o m m o n l y  
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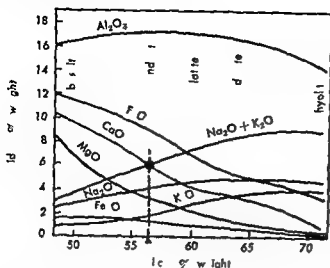
Study of thin sections Th t u d f t i n a r e  
t n d the m r a c p e g e s t i l l f u r t h r l u  
b l i n f r m t a b o u t m e m e n t r e c o r d e d i n t h  
o c k f b i A r r a n g e m e n t f t h e o c k m a k i g m n  
r a l b h a p e a d l o b c r y t l l t t r  
t i d t r m i e d b y m a n o f a p t o g r a p h i  
m p q u i p p e d w i t h a u t e r a l t g D a  
e m p r p a e d b y t h t e c h q e g m h n  
u p e t e d n f r m t a b o u t t h f l e c t o f m e  
m n t o c k f a b r I n r o c k t o o f i e g r a i n t o  
t d y n d e r the m c r o s c o p e x r a y a l c n  
g t h e d e s d f r m t n [ R a x ]

B b l p h y H W F t n, S t u t u P  
t o l o g y o f D e f o r m d R k 2 d d, 1919 E. B  
K n p l a d E. L e c o n, S t u t a l P t o l o g y G e o l  
S o c A m. V m 6 1930.

# Petrographic province

A m i t w h i c h the g n e o s r o c k f r m e d d u  
i n a l i m i t e d p d h o w e t a m m m i t y f  
h a a c t e ( h m c a l m n e a l g l m p t r o l g





Igneous rock variation diagram. Representing the calc-alkali series of volcanic rocks from San Francisco Mountains, Arizona.

ical) which distinguishes them from other rocks in the area. Rocks of a petrographic province are consanguineous in that they are theoretically at least derived from a common parental magma. A calcic province is represented by the highly potassic rocks around Rome and Naples. Other provinces are characterized by either high or low content in other elements (such as sodium and titanium).

If the chemical analyses of rocks representing a genetically related series are plotted on a variation diagram, many characteristics of the series may be brought out. The accompanying figure shows the percentages of oxides in each rock analysis as plotted against the silica content of that analysis.

All points lie on or close to smooth curves which represent the variation in composition with silica content (or roughly with time because younger rocks tend to be more silicic). Noteworthy are the positive slopes for potassium oxide ( $K_2O$ ) and sodium oxide ( $Na_2O$ ), the arched curve for aluminum oxide ( $Al_2O_3$ ), and the negative slopes for magnesium oxide ( $MgO$ ), calcium oxide ( $CaO$ ), ferrous oxide ( $FeO$ ), and ferric oxide ( $Fe_2O_3$ ). The combined alkali ( $Na_2O + K_2O$ ) curve is seen to cross the  $CaO$  curve at 56.5% silica. This silica value is known as the lime-alkali index for the rock series. On the basis of lime-alkali indices, the numerous rock series are arbitrarily divided into groups as follows: alkalic < 51, alkalic > 51 < 56, calc-alkalic > 56 < 61, and calcic > 61.

Certain rock series appear related to certain types of geological environments. In general, the more alkalic types occur in regions subjected to tension and vertical movement (faulting and subsidence), whereas more calcic series are found in compressional regions (fold mountain belts).

The olivine basalt-trachyte association. Rocks belonging to this association are extremely widespread. The association is well represented in the central Pacific island (Hawaii, Tahiti, Samoa), the island along the mid-Atlantic ridge (Ascension

Saint Helena) and islands of the Indian Ocean (Kerguelen). Both mineralogically and petrographically the association is relatively simple. Primary olivine basalt magma has given rise to the following sequence largely through crystallization and sinking of heavy minerals:

Olivine basalt  $\rightarrow$  basalt  $\rightarrow$  andesite  $\rightarrow$  trachyte.

The last two types are not abundant. Locally, the series may be carried beyond trachyte to quartz trachyte (Samoa) or soda rhyolite (Ascension). Elsewhere it may pass through tephrite to phonolite. The extrusion of phonolite may be due to strongly undersaturated (silica deficient) parent magma. The quartz-bearing end product may be due in some areas to a saturated parent magma and in others (Ascension) to slight assimilation of older granitic rocks.

The characteristic development of oceanic ankaramite and limburgite may be explained by gravitational accumulation of olivine and pyroxene at lower levels in the volcanic reservoir. Denudation and stratification of this type would permit nearly simultaneous eruption of highly contrasting lavas from neighboring vents.

The olivine basalt-trachyte association is well represented on the continents (Otago, New Zealand; Oslo, Norway; East African rift zone; Midland Valley of Scotland). Here, however, the late members of the series (trachyte, soda rhyolite, and phonolite) are relatively more abundant and leucite (rare in oceanic areas) may be locally important.

In general, the association occurs in regions of faulting and marked vertical movement. See also MAGMA.

**Flood basalts.** These basalts, also known as plateau basalts, form thick accumulations of nearly horizontal flows over vast areas (hundreds of thousands of square miles). Examples include the Columbia Snake River basalts of Oregon and Washington; the Deccan plateau lavas of western India; and the Keweenaw lavas of Lake Superior. These flows were probably erupted through fissures from great deep-seated supplies of basaltic magma.

Rock of this association are overwhelmingly basalts, but rare amounts of hyalite, trachyte, and andesite occur. Some geologists distinguish two types of flood basalt: olivine basalt and tholeiitic basalt. The former is slightly lower in silica but higher in soda, potash, and magnesium than is the latter. Both types may occur in the same area. They may be derived from different earth shells (at different levels) or the tholeiitic type may form from olivine basalt by crystallization. Other geologists consider the two types merely variations of a single primary basalt magma. See also BASALT.

Intrusive masses (dikes and sills) of basaltic material (diabase) form swarms of thousands of square miles in many parts of the world. Particularly notable are the nearly flat sheets of diabase in the sediments of the Karakoram system.

South Africa a d th flat Palaeozoic all of New  
 Zealand The E tshil r hode of magma differ-  
 entiated somewhat as they cooled a d ol me ar-  
 cumented a layer near the all floor P ro ne  
 i l ab ndant and mo e t o i h t ward the t p  
 and plagioclase increas abundance a d soda  
 content in the mediet The e relations d m  
 strate the centr l l crystal fra tion ion and  
 rising in the process of differentiation S Di

ABA

**Basalt andesite rhyolite association** The ande-  
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 type of but n t e tri ted to reg ns of r ge y  
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 N th and So th Am rica

The rock con it hies of and ite and rhyolite  
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 quartz latite B th la a nd tuff ar epr nted  
 The q uence f eruption f rock types i ex-  
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 loc l m lting of the tal ocks

**Basic ultrabasic association** This associati n  
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 o cal bod comm nly i cited m h flow  
 d pth Ex m pl s include the D l th lopolith f  
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 ba d d app r P d tite and p nte e  
 m t ab nd nt ar the ba Upward the e g e  
 way to o ite nd g b b o th me an rth e  
 Up r m t ocks may b d o t to gra ti O  
 vne a d pyr e be me r h r n n a d  
 pl g ol b m s mo od f m bott m to t p  
 n the bod es

Such d t h t o s ugg t that the r g ally  
 j t d b al t c o r b magma cold f d i n ge l  
 f m the floor pw d Cry tals may l e nt lly  
 f rmed uppe ego nd may h e etil d t  
 b l d g th fl Co e t n c u t t n the melt  
 m h h l p d t ed t b i d t t h e y s-  
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 t t f th r a l b a l t c m a g m a p d u t o f  
 m l a t f l e o u k s ( d m t a d f )  
 (e s) by th magma r y t l l ed d r y  
 m l e n t d by th hot b i t r ion

**Granodiorite granite association** The exten-  
 s ly de eloped oar e-gra ned plutonic a em-  
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 d ided into tw e tegories The fr t include the  
 smaller m (rock ring dike et ) m m nly  
 widely cattered and f rmed at relati elv l all w  
 depths The ma m ally tran gre the t r  
 ture f r r nd ng rock but som a e highly  
 e n c r d a n t s i m y h a s p e a l r l m e d the ad-  
 jace t and r ly ng rock They are m ally ur  
 t u d e l b y a metamorphic halo r z ne of re-  
 crystallizat n which i m nerally m t con p u u  
 whe e the rock ha e n t been p e v u ly meta-  
 morph ed

Crane and granodiorite predominate with mi-  
 nor am nts of diorite gabbro and syenite present  
 M t bodies ha e probably f rmed by cry talliza-  
 tion f gr nte or granodiorite magmas Wh r m  
 n r basaltic m lts la been an ol ed cry tal frac-  
 tio ation and a m lation of adjacent rock ma-  
 terial may ha e b ope ali e S A t r o l e c n  
 TACT

The sec nd category includes immen e deep-  
 se ted bod es (batholiths) surround d by meta-  
 morphic rocks and re tricted to orogenic zones The  
 Sierra Nevada batholith of California and the  
 Coast Range batholith of British Columbia are  
 typ cal examples The predomina t rock type i  
 granite in those ma e of Precambrian age and  
 granodiorite in the younger bodie Quartz diorite  
 is somewhat less abundant whereas diorite gabbro  
 and syenite occur ally l cally Batholiths are g-  
 rally elongate parallel to the orogen m b l but  
 locally they are highly cro scutting The granitic  
 rocks may be ma ve or foliated (showing parallel  
 eaking or layer ng of m e r l s) much lik the  
 adjacent metamorphic rock into hich they ma-  
 appe to grad Many are characteri ally a  
 sociated with pegmatite a d m gmatite

Some of the large bodie s m y f m f r m gra-  
 nite magm de l d f y d wnt u kling and melt ng  
 f the arth s sal s (g an t i) layer Othe s may  
 repre ent m re r le rec tituted (metam-  
 phosed) ed ments in m y ncl n Still th bod-  
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 Z TION METAMORPHIC ROCKS METAMORPHISM  
 METAMORPHIC ROCKS METAMORPHISM  
 METAMORPHIC ROCKS METAMORPHISM

**Leucite basalt potash trachybasalt** The o-  
 ciati n i lud s a w d a ety f l c po-  
 tash rhyolite rocks f la and near place  
 r g m Th a a t o s n f n d t h c nti-  
 nents Bas (l w in c h g h in Ca F and Mg)  
 nd ult ba la s with i t a d m nant in  
 m y r a O c r n m t t d but w d  
 p d (R m Napl) It f r Uga da es f Africa  
 W t K n b e l y We tern A u t a l a and L u c i t e  
 H l l W y m n g) Ro k type ncl de leucite ba-  
 lt leucite basalt e f ash trachybasalt a d  
 v l l t e ba alt The a c i n appe s n reg on  
 f f a l t g a d m r k e d r t l m e m e n t S  
 L E L C I E n o r

**Spilitic keratophyre association** This associa-  
 tion i ncl de leucite flows and tuff with m n  
 t u e i m a t i m a e a t e d with ed m n

geoclinical region. The rocks are soda rich and potassium poor; they are chiefly basaltic (spilitic) with some soda trachyte (keratophyre). Many appear altered (metamorphosed) and some are associated with rocks of the basalt andite rhyolite suite. See SPILITE.

**Ultrabasic rock** The predominantly peridotite and serpentinite rock in abundant intrusive bodies is closely associated with the spilitic suite. Together the two rock associations constitute the so-called ophiolites, generally considered to represent the earliest magmatic phenomenon in orogenic regions. See PERIDOTITE.

**Nepheline syenite association** Nepheline syenite and associated alkali-rich rocks are widespread but rare. They are continental rocks and commonly appear in areas of subsidence and faulting. See NEPHELINE SYENITE.

**Anorthosite** This rock forms gigantic masses in Precambrian terranes and appears associated with hyperthene granite and norite. It is composed of andesine or labradorite and therefore differs from the calcium-rich anorthosite associated with gabbro in large stratiform sheets. See GABBRO.

[C.A.C.A.]  
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## Petrography

A branch of petrology, the study of rock that emphasizes the description and systematic classification of rocks especially by the study of thin sections under the petrographic microscope by analysis of disaggregated samples or by analysis of individual mineral components. See PETROLOGY.

The megascopic classification of rock based on characteristics observed in field exposures or hand specimens suffices for some purposes but refined description and classification require determination of the kinds, size, shape, and space interrelationships in the aggregate of original mineral components and the changes and alteration that have affected rocks or their separate components subsequent to the original formation.

The petrographic estimation of a rock usually entails both an analysis of the rock after disaggregation into mineral particles of size fraction and examination of the rock in thin sections under the petrographic microscope.

**Study of disaggregated samples** Techniques for study of disaggregated sample differ depending upon whether the rock is composed of a cumulation of particles and fragments in a matrix (clastic rock) or consists of interlocking mineral grains in a matrix (crystalline rock).

Partly to moderately indurated or hardened clastic rock are disaggregated by crushing or pulverization by dissolving cementing materials or by using the disrupting effect of salts precipitating from saturated solutions with which the rock is impregnated. After disaggregation the size distribution of the clastic particles is ascertained by a

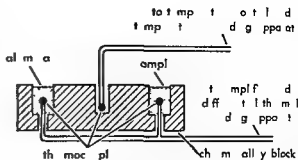


Fig. 1. Diagram showing principal components of sample holder used for diffraction analysis. (From E. Wahlgren, *Petrographic Methods*, Wiley, 1955).

analysis or by liquid or air elutriation, and the shapes, roundness, and surface characteristics of the particles are noted under a stereoscopic binocular microscope.

Hard clastic rocks and crystalline rocks including igneous, metamorphic, and recrystallized or firmly cemented sedimentary rock are disaggregated by crushing into fragment sizes that will permit separation into mineral fractions. A variety of methods for separation of disaggregated rock into mineral fractions are available.

**Separation of mineral fractions** Commonly used methods include hand sorting, under the microscope, separation in heavy liquid, magnetic separation, and electrostatic separation.

**Heavy liquid separation** Heavy liquids consisting of suspensions of ground metal in liquid are available with densities as high as 7.5 but are infrequently used because of the opacity. Widely used transparent liquids are bromoform, which has a density near 2.9, and acetylene tetrabromide with a density of 2.96. These are employed to separate heavy minerals from light minerals. Powdered rocks, sometimes sized by screening and washed to remove the very fine fractions, are suspended in a heavy liquid in a funnel, separated by hand, and vigorously agitated to cause the light minerals to float and the heavy minerals to sink. After the heavy minerals have been collected and washed, a crop of the light minerals may be obtained by a preliminary progression of the heavy liquid with appropriate solvent.

**Magnetic separation** Electromagnetic separators provide mineral fraction differences in magnetic susceptibilities. Satisfactory electromagnetic separators are constructed to allow variation in field intensity, the point of area separation, variation of the tilt of the poles of the magnet, and variation of the rate of feed. Better ultimate results with clean feed following agglomeration of finely sized grains. Electromagnetic separation is not satisfactory when minerals contain nonmagnetic finely distributed impurities or light particles.

**Electrostatic separation** Mineral particles of different electrical and dielectric properties are separated by electrostatic separation. Minerals are placed on a grounded metal plate



fractions The volume mode of rocks obtained from thin sections may be converted to a weight mode by calculations using a summed or measured specific gravities for each mineral component Weight modes are used to calculate bulk chemical compositions of rocks after the composition of each mineral has been determined by optical or other means The volume mode is determined by microscopic analysis in thin sections With a mechanical stage several linear traverses are made across the thin section and the mode is calculated on the assumption that the volume of each mineral is proportional to the total of the linear intercepts for the mineral measured by the stage A more rapid method employs a point counter a mechanical stage which moves the thin section to a succession of equally spaced points in a linear traverse The mineral at the intersection of the cross hairs of the microscope is noted at each point and the volume of each mineral in the rock is assumed to be proportional to the number of points counted for each mineral

**Space arrangement** The space arrangement of the mineral components is analyzed quantitatively by means of petrofabric technique The angular relationships to the plane of the thin section and ultimately to the site of collection of the sample in the field of crystallographic directions as determined by optical measurements or by observation of crystal shapes are measured with a universal stage Measured angles are used to plot points on an equal area projection a special type of projection derived from the spherical projection The density of points on the projection is indicated by contours so that the finished plot is a statistical indication of the preferred orientation in one respect or another of one or several mineral components See PETROFABRIC ANALYSIS

A specialized branch of microscopic petrography deals with opaque minerals especially ore minerals as studied under a reflecting microscope The highly polished surface of a mineral or mineral aggregate is examined by reflected light which is directed onto the surface of the mineral by a vertical illuminator a device inserted into the microscope between the object lens and the barrel of the microscope Polarizing plates or prisms permit observations in plane polarized light Minerals are identified by their isotropism or anisotropism color reflectivity hardness and response to a standard set of etch reagents Small portions of minerals scratched from the polished surface are subjected to systematic microchemical analysis x ray analysis or spectrographic analysis See MICROSCOPE REFLECTING

Rocks containing both opaque and nonopaque minerals may be studied by making polished thin sections Part of a section is left unetched so that the opaque component can be studied in reflected light while the other components are examined by transmitted light by ordinary methods [F R W]

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## Petrolatum

A smooth semisolid blend of mineral oil with wax crystallized from the residual type of petroleum lubricating oil The wax molecules contain from 30 to 70 carbon atoms and are straight chains with a few branches or naphthene rings They are micro-needles and hold a large amount of oil in a gel Petrolatums are useful because they cling lubricate and resist both moisture and oxidation They serve as lubricants in baking and candymaking as carriers in polishes cosmetics and ointments as rust preventives as waterproofing agents for paper and in other uses calling for an inert grease-like material (see PETROLEUM PRODUCTS) [J K R]

## Petroleum

A naturally occurring oily flammable liquid composed principally of hydrocarbons and occasionally found in springs or pools but usually obtained from beneath the earth's surface by drilling wells Formerly called rock oil unrefined petroleum is now usually termed crude oil

Petroleum is separated by distillation into fractions designated as (1) straight run gasoline boiling up to about 200 C (2) middle distillate boiling at about 185-345 C from which are obtained kerosene heating oil and diesel jet rocket and gas turbine fuel (3) wide cut gas oil which boils at about 345-540 C and from which are obtained waxes lubricating oils and feed stock for catalytic cracking to gasoline and (4) residual oil which may be asphaltic

The physical properties and chemical composition of petroleum vary markedly depending on its source As it comes from the earth it ranges from an occasional nearly colorless liquid containing chiefly of gasoline to a heavy black tarry material high in asphalt content Although most crudes are black many are amber red or brown by transmitted light and how a greenish fluorescence by reflected light Their specific gravity usually is in the range between about 0.82 and 0.95

Hydrocarbon content is 50-98% of petroleum and the remainder is comprised chiefly of organic compounds containing oxygen nitrogen sulfur and trace amounts of metallic compounds and Pennsylvania crude oils contain 97-98% hydrocarbons some California oil contains only 50%

**Hydrocarbon types** The hydrocarbon type found in petroleum is a paraffin (alkane) paraffins (naphthene or cycloalkane) and aromatics Olefin (alkene) and diene are not rated hydrocarbons are usually absent

**Paraffins** The paraffin range from methane (found together with ethane in paraffin and the lightest in the natural gas which accompany petroleum) to n-hexadecane ( $C_{16}H_{34}$ ) a merytalline wax and compound of a high molecular weight But straight chain a-



*Petroleum* vol 2 1938 vol 5 pt 1 1950 H L Lochte and E R Littmann *The Petroleum Acids and Bases* 1955 F D Rossini B J Mair and A J Streiff *Hydrocarbons from Petroleum* 1953

## Petroleum (origin)

Petroleum a complex mixture of hydrocarbons contains small amounts of oxygen nitrogen and sulfur compounds and traces of metal salts Accumulation of petroleum is believed to involve three steps generation of oil primary migration (the movement of oil from source to reservoir rock) and secondary migration (the redistribution of oil within the reservoir rock to form a pool) On the basis of the best available data these steps can be described as follows

**Generation of oil** Oil is generated in sedimentary basins These basins are shallow continental depressions hundreds of square miles in area that have intermittently been covered with sea water and are now filled with sediments The sediments are of three types (1) rock particles varying from sand to clay muds which were eroded from hills and mountains and carried to the basins by stream (2) biochemical and chemical precipitates such as limestone gypsum anhydrite and chert and (3) organic matter from the plants and animals that lived in the sea or were carried in by rivers Some of these types of sediments are being laid down today in basins such as the Persian Gulf and the Caspian Sea

The third type of sediment the organic matter is considered the source of petroleum Evidence for this is the fact that petroleum contains traces of several substances that could have come only from living things Examples of these are porphyrins related to hemin and chlorophyll which are components of modern organisms optically active compound (compound that will rotate the plane of a ray of polarized light) and structures related to cholesterol

It is believed that oil is generated from organic matter in one or both of two ways It may come directly from the hydrocarbons that marine organisms form as part of their living cells or it may come from the conversion of dead organic matter to hydrocarbon

Evidence of the first process is that some of the complex hydrocarbons in petroleum are comparable to those found in modern plankton kelp other algae coral and higher organisms such as oysters and bluefish When such organisms die in the waters of a sedimentary basin their remains drop into the material accumulating in the basin Their hydrocarbon content is low (0.005–0.1% by weight) and most of this is destroyed by bacterial oxidation However the total amount of hydrocarbon produced in this manner is so great (probably more than 1,000,000 barrels a year) that less than 1% of it would have to be preserved and accumulated to account for a possible  $1.5 \times 10^{10}$  bbl of recoverable oil existing 1 day in the land and continental shelf sediments

The second process by which oil may be formed involves the synthesis of hydrocarbons from the decay and alteration of buried organic matter It is believed that bacteria convert the organic matter into more petroleum-like substance by removing oxygen sulfur and nitrogen in the form of water hydrogen sulfide and ammonia respectively The earth's crust contains such a vast amount of organic matter that if only traces of it were converted in this manner it could form all the world's oil

The synthesis process probably occurs over relatively short periods of time there are many oil accumulations that appear to have formed from rocks less than 3,000,000 years old In fact since hydrocarbon content does not increase with depth in the rocks of sedimentary basins synthesis may be essentially completed in the first few hundred feet of burial The temperatures under which the process takes place are probably low because the temperatures of petroleum source and reservoir rocks rarely exceed 100°C

A particular environment is required to preserve the biogenetically produced hydrocarbons and to make conservation of organic matter possible The source beds of petroleum are fine-grained clay or carbonate muds deposited in basins under reducing conditions Coarse sediments such as clean and stone reefs and oolites are usually not source rocks of petroleum because they are deposited in shallow water areas where water movement winnows out the organic matter and the oxygen containing environment tends to destroy hydrocarbon

Present-day basins provide conditions that may be representative of those under which oil can be formed and that can be studied For example recent sediments in the Gulf of Mexico contain up to 0.05% of young (less than 15,000 year old) hydrocarbons that are of the same general types found in petroleum such as paraffins and naphthenes However certain differences in the structure and distribution of the type suggest that some of them are an intermediate stage between hydrocarbons from organisms and petroleum

**Primary migration** Primary migration of petroleum from source to reservoir the second step in accumulation is caused by the movement of water which carries oil in concentration less than 100 parts per million out of compacting sediment

When the source muds are deposited they contain 70–80% water The remainder is solid mainly clay minerals or carbonate particles as they build up to great thicknesses in a sedimentary basin water is squeezed out by the weight of the overlying sediments After compaction the source mud contain only about 25% water at a depth of 2000 ft and 10% at 6000 ft

The water and oil move in the direction of least resistance (lowest hydrostatic pressure) at a rate of about 1–3 in per year Early in migration the direction of fluid movement is straight up A migration progress there is lateral as well as vertical movement of the fluid The lateral movement results primarily from the tendency of the flat





bit is turned at the bottom of the hole mud pumped from the surface through the drill pipe cleans and cools the bit flushes to the surface the rock cuttings that have been torn loose by the bit and provides pressure to prevent collapse of the sides of the holes before casing is inserted. The mud must be heavy enough to prevent flow of fluids into the hole during the drilling operation. In soft or unconsolidated formations care must be taken to prevent the hydrostatic pressure of the mud from forcing the mud into the surrounding formation. Excessive mud weight may result in loss of mud to such an extent that gas, oil or water may break into the hole and erupting at the surface destroy the drilling equipment and tear out a crater at the surface with resulting loss of hydrocarbons and damage to nearby properties. See BORING AND DRILLING MINERAL OIL AND GAS WELLS.

In some areas mud is formed by simply pumping water down the drill pipe and mixing the water with the soft clays which have been cut loose by the bit. But drilling mud is often an expensive and carefully engineered fluid produced by additions to the natural drilling mud. The cost of drilling mud varies from zero under most favorable conditions to costs exceeding \$10 per barrel of fluid. It is not uncommon for mud costs to exceed 20% of the total cost of drilling under difficult conditions. Careful chemical and physical testing may be required at short intervals to make certain that the mud has the desired characteristics and to plan for trying those characteristics as the bit penetrates different formations in depth. See GEOPHYSICAL EXPLORATION PROSPECTING WELL LOGGING (MINERAL).

The well having been drilled to a specified depth or to the point where commercial deposits of hydrocarbons are expected, tested or proved the hole is protected by running (inerting) a string of casing. The engineer must select casing of proper strength, diameter and wall thickness so that the string can be lowered into the well without parting under the strain of its own weight. It must also have adequate collapsing strength so that it will not be crushed by outside pressures when fluid is removed from the casing. Commonly important savings result from varying the strength and wall thickness in different parts of a casing or tubing string. Maximum tensile strength is required at the top of the string to sustain most or all of the entire weight. Maximum collapse strength is required at the bottom of the string where external pressures are at a maximum.

The casing is normally protected by pumping neat cement through it and permitting this cement to set along the outside of the casing to harden the ground surface. Cement quality must be chosen with full consideration of underground temperatures and fluids to allow ample time for pumping the cement to the desired position before the cement sets. If the cement does not rise to the desired point outside the casing, the casing must be perforated at one or more points and additional cement pumped through the perforations to form a cement sheath around the casing. When cementing casing a plug

is placed in the casing at the top of the fluid cement. Mud pumped above the plug forces the plug to a point near the bottom of the hole so that little cement is left in the casing when the pumping operation ceases.

Frequently and normally in deep wells more than one string of casing is required to complete a well. For example, the normal hydrostatic pressure of fluids existing in the penetrated formations is 0.465 psi per foot of depth. In some areas, notably the Gulf Coast of Texas and Louisiana, certain formations contain fluids under pressures approximating the weight of the overburden, so that the hydrostatic pressures in the abnormal zones may be 1 psi per foot of depth. Counterbalancing such a pressure requires mud weighing 18 lb/gal. If such heavy mud is used in formations of normal hydrostatic pressure the mud may be forced into the surrounding formations and fail to return to the surface. The well may then be in danger because cuttings which should have been removed from the well by the circulating mud may settle and allow pipe to stick. Accordingly, the well is drilled with 10-12 lb mud to the top of the formation where abnormal pressure is anticipated and casing will be landed and cemented at that point. The mud weight is then greatly increased for the zone of abnormal pressure. The petroleum engineer must design his mud and his casing strings to protect against such varying conditions.

Surveys are run during drilling to secure data on the straightness of the hole and the temperature encountered. Unsurveyed wells have wandered (deviated) as far as 2000 ft distant from a vertical line through the well location. Electrical, neutron and gamma ray surveys determine the porosity of the formations penetrated and the character of the fluid in any porous rocks. Most of the surveys are made by specialists, but the capable petroleum engineer is prepared to interpret the surveys and to adapt his operation to the conditions shown by such surveys.

**Gas oil separation problems.** Hydrocarbon occur underground under pressure and temperature normally far in excess of surface conditions. The engineer must plan to separate the oil from the gas at the surface during the oil lifting measurement to pipeline and where necessary transport the gas to gasoline plants where liquefiable hydrocarbons are removed from the gas. The gas is then dehydrated, sometimes treated to remove sulfur compounds and reduced gas is made available for sale to gas pipeline or for use in engineering or recycling a producing formation. See OIL AND GAS FIELD EXPLOITATION PETROLEUM PETROLEUM GEOLOGY.

Under high pressure and temperature, all the gas may be dissolved in oil so that the formation contains only a single liquid hydrocarbon phase. Conversely, if the volume of heavy hydrocarbon is relatively small, all of the oil may be dissolved in the gas so that the single hydrocarbon phase underground is a gas mixture. If pressures are reduced from hydrocarbon liquid condition to ...

gas f m l q d in the pay f rmat n and are held b apillary att act on nd thus lo t If a gas p ol e nt ns m h l i q d n g a olut o and if th s pool i prod ed an d n y ga pool the lo s of co de s t ( l quef ble hydr arbon ) n th p y ma xc ed 50<sup>c</sup> f the lq efi ble u te t a e u ero m l l t the p odu er Fir ther th el q d by blo k ng m ute connect ons bet e n the po e pa m y ro ly mped the fl w of gas nto th well a d thus extend th produ t If f the field a m ch = 100<sup>c</sup> Con e q ently ult m te g s re o ery may be r d ed a m h 25<sup>c</sup> Th u f rru te re ult may b p e r ted by grad ally withdr wing the s tr p p gu f l quef bl hvd a bo and re act ng the dry m nde high pre ure t th pay Thi op at known cycl m e p n ve le e the retur ed g s m ut b c m p e d t a b h r p e ur th n th e t ng pr ue in the pay H g p e su gathe c mpre i g nd d t b t n f s l tes ar equ ed E tr m ly ac u ate g e g m ut b appl d t d r m n d a e h the the t f e y l ng w ll be g at r l s tha th lu f th e vered l l d nd low h the th b e f i f e d t n i p e at ng t m h the p l ope ted w thout y l ng e eed th net p f i e ult g f m u p p n th l i q d fr m the ga b e f e the a bil g ma k ted S PETROLEUM RESERVOIR ENGINEERING PETROLEUM SECODARY RECOVERY

**Recovery problems** Oil pool pr due under f m l n m g sp n gas-cap d r e wate dr d g a i ty d a n m Comm ly two r m mech m op t i i g l pool The pet l um nee m th le t t take f l l d nt ge fanv p i bl wate dr a sp d h ch w l p r m t r ng a l g p r tage f l n th f y format n tha a b b i a du de g p n d e

F p u lly b e t ng n the l at n f a l l a d at f r d t n f m nd i dual fl i m p l m b d u ble th t wh h w l d h b e n u d by ga e p n n gra i ty d g S me t me ga w t o ven m y b n j t d i a p l to d pla a d f l t t p du g w l l j t n of x t u m t e l l d m l i g n r e e l p o d t n r f r r d to a o d r y e r y

W t d a e e th m i f f e t f r m f nd y c r y nd may b e p e c t e d produ e m ch l m y b e d by g n y e t Eff t to m p e c d r y e v by w te d l th e f m s als wh ch w l e d th u f t n f o l n the pay a d d the fl t f f i l l y t r t n m h l d g l n the f j Add t p l e d i th w te ay t e e t s r f e t n t the p t w h t l l d pl l Oth r d d t m y r e d e the f t e n f the l d p n t t s d pl m t Add u a e p a d t h i n t lway i t i f i e d P m m e p m t e l d th j j n f l g h t h d a b n u h a p r p a e d b t n h a d f t w t Th l g h t f i q d m b g w th l d e t t y nd n

duce more complete flu i ng fr m the pay Natural ga carbon d o x d e or s r are metime introduced in th water drive to a i t n m ng il from the p y Th petrol m gineer mut determine whether sec lary re ery perati n a e j u t f i d i f o h m u t e l t the meth d and the d d t e i f any wh h w ll g e the larg t con m c return fr m the m e y i n v e d in the condary r e ery work

**Corrosion** Thr gh ut the product e life f a f i l d the gineer faces the pr l l m f co r n Carb n d o x id m ga l y d r gen ulf id m ga and l and alt water all c r d e ca i ng t i l ng cker r d tank and other quipm t These may le ombated u d r a r y i ng nd t i n l y e l e t n of p e c i a l t e e l n a i n g v a r y n g p r e e t g e of n i k l c l r m i m and ther all y n g m t l Corr n combats t i ch as an alkali or so maldehyde are f e q n t l y d t n e t r a l l y h y d r gen ulf id and e r l n d x l Some u e e s h a l e e n b i a n e d f y c o t i n g s h e r o d and i n t e r n l l y t i i l l n g u r i a c e l n e s a l e q p m e n t w t h p l a t i c I n g e r a l p a t i s e n t h e n e s u l n p r o t e c t i n g e q p m t a g a i n t r r o i e f l u d

**Oil water separation** The agn r al applies chem i c l e n g e e r n g t r a t n g l i t e p a r a t e w a t e f m l e m e l n T h e t a t n g m a y c o n t f m e r e l y h a t i n g the i l t f l a t e the p a r a s n of w a t e f r m i l S o m e m e t h w e l l f l u f i l t e d t t o u g h h a y t e w e r e l e r a t u a l e d w t h o i l w h i h r j e t t e w a t e r and p r m t c l n l t f l w t h r i g h t f i l t e A w l r a n g of e l e m e n t l s d e d p d n g the h n a l e m p i t n of the o d t b r e a k d w n the m l n s l n s m e a r e a s e l e c t t i t e p a r t i n f i l from w a t e r c h i e d f r p i m the f l d b t w e e n i n l a t e d e l e t c a l l y h a g e d p l a t C o m b i t n of l l the p r e e a r e a s u e f u l s o m e a r e a Co e r s e l y c o m l m u t t e w a h e d w t h w a t e r t r m a e d i u m h l o r d e and t h e r a l t from u s p n n A g a n the s u e f l e g n e e r m u t e l e c t the p r o c a b t u d e d t h e c n d t i n x i t i n g a n th f i e l d f m w h i c h p o d t n l i n d

**Production forecasts** The pet leum ginee mut p e d i t t h p r o d c t i o n of ga nd of o l b o t h s u m a d t m e Th n u m b e r of w e l l s t b e d l l d t h t of p d u c t i n l i t h t y p e f e q i p m t t b u d w l l a r y d e p e n d i n g m the p e d e t n a t l i f e f t h f i e l d a d t h l u m e s f l g a s d a t e t b e p r o d u c e d l d t i o n s a m a d m t r u g h l y b a v o l m e t r e a l l a t i n w h i l a t t m y s t a t d e t e m i n e the l m of p r u s r c k w h c h a t r t d w t h o l t h p n t a g of p r s t y t h r o k t h p e r t g e of w t t t n n g the p o r p a c e the h n k a g f the o l e l i n g f r r e l e a s e of g a d t h p t g e r o y f t h a l b l o l N e e r y t n s m d f t h d i f f e n e b e t w e t m p e a t u nd p r e s i t f r m a t i o n and n d r s t a d a d d t s Co r p n d g e t m a t r m a d f r g a p r d u t m W h e n a p o l i f i r t d s o d the n l y r e r r e t m a t w h b c a n b m d e i s f s d n o l u m t c c a l c l t s w h h a e r i l

inaccurate because the engineer does not have complete data on the various parameter. See PROSPECTING PETROLEUM

After a pool has come producing history the engineer may estimate the ultimate production on the basis of curves comparing production against the declining pressure or decreasing rate of production. In gas pool the accurately determined volume of gas produced per pound of pressure decline usually provides a good estimate of future production. However, an unanticipated active water drive in the pool may cause an excessive estimate. A material balance equation gives the most accurate measure of available reserve provided necessary data are available. Estimates of productive life depend upon estimate of ultimate production and the estimated rate of production which rate normally decreases as pool pressures diminish. Production rate should never exceed the maximum efficient rate of production MER which is the highest rate of production which can be maintained without underground water. MER is frequently decreased by conservation regulation by limited marketing facilities and by delays in effecting unitization or other arrangement necessary for secondary recovery operations.

Predictions of reserves and of producing life are fundamental to the proper management of the field, the financing of the production operations, and the program for exploration in search of other productive fields. [R.S.A.]

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## Petroleum geology

The application of geologic principles in the discovery and development of oil and gas pools. The geology of petroleum includes the origin, migration and accumulation of petroleum, the structural and stratigraphic relations of oil and gas pools, the lithologic characteristics of formations and producing horizons, and the use of index or guide fossils in correlating horizons.

Geological aspects treated here include the occurrence of petroleum, the character of reservoir rock, typical reservoir trap, and the general nature of reservoir fluids, for further treatment of the physical and chemical properties of petroleum, the origin and migration of petroleum, reservoir and productive mechanisms, and geological and geophysical methods of exploration, see PETROLEUM PETROLOGY (ORIGIN); PETROLEUM ENGINEERING; PROSPECTING PETROLEUM; see also MICROPALYTOLOGY; PALYNOLOGY.

### OCCURRENCE OF PETROLEUM

Petroleum deposits may be classified as surface occurrences and subsurface occurrences.

**Surface occurrences.** The occurrences may be thought of as currently active or inactive occurrences, such as seep, spring, exudate, and

mud volcanoes and mud flows. Others may be termed fossil or "dead" occurrences, such as bitumen impregnated sediments in saturated deposit and dike and vein fillings of solid bitumens. Another surface occurrence of petroleum is oil shale, a borderline material between the petroleum hydrocarbons and the coal family.

**Seeps, springs and exudates.** Petroleum that exudes in any of the forms may reach the surface along fractures, joints, fault planes, unconformities or bedding planes, or through the connected porous openings of the rocks. Most seeps (or springs) are formed by the slow escape of petroleum from fairly large accumulations that have been brought close to the surface and into the zone of fracturing by erosion, or that have been tapped by faults and fractures. Almost without exception seeps are at topographically low spots where water has also accumulated. Oil which is lighter rises to the surface of the water, covering it with an iridescent film. Many pools and producing regions have been discovered by drilling near seepage.

Exudates of a phaltic oils rising at the surface are likely to be changed to asphalt, partly by the escape of volatile fractions, but mainly by chemical changes such as combination with oxygen or sulfur. The asphalt is black in color and varies in consistency from a sticky liquid to a substance hard enough to walk on. Outcrops of asphaltic oils are sometimes marked by small pools (less than 100 ft across) which have collected on the surface of the ground. Many of the pools contain the bones of animals that have been caught in the sticky material. Asphalt found at the surface has nearly always seeped up from the bedrock in the vicinity, but there are a few instances where asphalt has been carried by water. Asphalt of natural origin has been found floating in the Gulf of Mexico from Padre Island to Matagorda Peninsula, Texas.

**Mud volcanoes and mud flows.** These are high pressure seeps that carry with them water, mud, sand, fragments of rock, and occasionally oil. Mud volcanoes are usually confined to regions underlain by incompetent, often shale, boulder and clay, and in the deep, it is a mud and unconsolidated sediment. The surface of a mud volcano is often a conical mound or hill, with an opening or crater at the top through which the mud and water which is usually light, only the type which emits gas without oil, is added to the mud and water. The hole is under a surface indication of oil or gas. Mud flows occur chiefly in areas of Cenozoic, but they have been described from the Miocene.

**Solid asphalt.** Solid asphalt is Tar, a phaltic wax and hard brittle bitumen (any of the flammable liquid or solid hydrocarbons) which is found in the form of bitumen, asphalt, and asphalt.

Asphalt is a highly viscous liquid or solid, composed of petroleum, are found in the form of bitumen, asphalt, and asphalt. are a natural or synthetic deposit, filling a hole or



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**Solid and semisolid deposits.** These are phalt wax and hard brittle bitumen (any of the flammable viscous liquid or solid hydrocarbons in the oil field in carbon dioxide) are particularly regarded as solid although gradually peaking some of them are highly viscous liquids. Outcrops of bituminous are found in the form of disseminated deposits and veins or dikes, depending on filling cracks. If



Typical trap types

be u it n n t d harge is fluid cont t f r a  
p k t b p m f i t m u t h a p r a n t y i n t e  
p n t g p e a d p o f u p e a p l l a r y s e z e  
p i l l y m e e d f c y i t

### RESERVOIR TRAPS

Re erv t a p l i t e r v r o t h t t h e  
a u m f a t e d l o g a t p e T h e p p e r  
b d y f i t a p a l l e d t h f r  
p k t h l w b n l y l l d t h o l w a  
t e t t o t a b l

R f r p o k a n i m p e r v u l a y e r o f r o c k  
f r m i g t h i f o f l t r p T h m n e t a g  
p r n t h r e r k h i h e d i d u a l l y  
m t a a r l e a t e d w t h w a t r S n  
i l t g a a l i g h t t h a w t t h e p t r l e u m  
t i u g h t h w i u n t i t p l d b y t h  
f k l f t h e o f k a e (d o m d  
h d f l d p e k d e o f h p e d) u a c t a a  
t p k p g t h i d g f a p g l i

O l w a t i a t t b l t h l o w b o u d r y  
f t h e J j a l l y a i s t h e t t l y  
p t f t h w a t t h i n r m l l y f i l l t h p e  
f t h r v o c k T h e w t p p o t t h p l  
f i l n d g n d t h p r o f t h w a t f o  
t i p t l m p w a d g t t h b o d g  
f f t h t r p h l d n g t m p l T h a m p l e t  
a d m t o m m w y f a p e r m e b l d e  
k d f m t i t b m t r p i s t o b e f l d e d  
t o a t i f A a t e l m f l d f m  
b l n g i d p l w i t h a t h u p w d  
e x t y l t c b p l d H w l y

th = anticline which is an effective closure with  
me h r i z t a l t e n t a r p r l i c t i o e f i l t r g a

**Geologic structure** The ant clinal theory is the  
m t u c e f i l f i l l t h t h e o r e s f p e t r l e m g e  
o l g I t h a s b e e n t u m a t e d t h t f l l y 80 f t h e  
o i l n t h 236 m a j r i f l l f t h e w r i f f i n a n  
t i l n e T h e f a t t a t a l a n d g a m m n l y o c m  
n a n t i l n a l x e w a f t e n t e d l y W F L o g a n  
i n 1817 H e l e r v e d t h a t a l e p s o c c u r d i n t h e  
v e n t u r y f a n t i c l a l a x e s a r t h m u t h f i t S t  
L a w r n R e r A l i h u g h t t r m a n t i f a n t i l e  
r y f a f l l a t d i m t l f i n d m n t a l p r i  
p l n w h c l i t a l d i t i l l a l l o i l a n d g  
a c c i m l t a t t h m e a t t f a l l t i g h t w i t h i n  
t h r e r v i t l e r g n r d t o d a y t l t t h r f a  
t r n t r o l t h a m l a n f i l i n m a n y p o l

**Classification of traps** Three basic types of  
traps generally are trap, gas, and structural traps.

**Structural traps** A trap with upper boundary  
has been made con v f y m e l o c a l d f o r m a t i n  
u h a f l d i g s f a u l t i n g ( f l t h ) f l t r r  
r r k i k n w n a t r i t u a l t r a p T h e i g  
f a p o o l c c i n g i a t r a c t r i l t r a p a r d t r  
m n e d l y t h i n t e c t i n f i l n d r i n g w a t r  
t a l l e w i t h e e n l i n g r o o f o r c p r o c k S t r u  
t r i t r p n c l i d e l d a n t l i n a r d m  
f a l t e d a n t l i n e w i t h c l u e c l u r e a g a i n t  
f a u l t u i n d o w n d i p d e s o f a l t d l  
a n d g a m u l t i n a f a t i e s p r o d e d l y  
t u t u a l d f r m a t n

**Stratigraphic traps** All known a r y n g p e r  
m l l y t a p t r a t i g r a p h t r a p a t h i n  
w h b t h h f a p m a k i g i m e t i m v a r i  
t n n t h e t a t i g a p l y r i t h i g y r b o t h o f t h e  
e r v r o c k T h e e n l i l f c c h g a r i  
l l l a l p m t y n d p r m l l y t a d a n y u p  
t r t u t r m n a t o f t h r e r v o r o c k S t r a t i  
g r a p h i t p n c l u d a d t e l n e s h a n e l  
b a r a d e e f p r t y i n e s d r e s e r v i r i n  
p e m e t l e r g n i c l d ( e a l l h l e ) S o m  
t h e m c m m o n t r a t i g a p h t r a p a r e s i r d  
l p l h o e t i g a l t p a l t m e a d  
b h m S F a c i e s ( c r o l o c y )

**Stratigraphic traps** are local features  
f o m p e m e a l e t i m p m a b l e r o c k s w h i h d  
t e r m e t h e l t u n o f t h d g f n i l p o o l  
T h y a r o c l l d w h e n o c t e d w i t h h o r  
p h m n a S S t r a n d l i n e

**Sh t g d t a p a r e l u g n r r w a n d**  
d e p o s i t w h i h m a v i n d e d t o l e a l l n e  
f a p e r i l t y p e T h e y m a y b e h a l f o r t h e  
q a t e s f m l e w d a d t o m a y m l s n  
l e g t h E e p t t f e r t m n a l m d i t h v a m  
p l t l y u r u n d d l y m p r v u s l e s a n d l a  
S m a d i a p s o f t h n a t i b e l i e v d t o l e  
h n l f i l l a n d t l f f h o r e a d t

**Two general classes of many stratigraphic**  
t a p s u r m r k o f h m a l o u g l m t l l  
o f t h m e a b n t c k T h e a l i t r o m e a d  
b i h e r m B t r m s n l y t a b i l a r p o r u  
l e t h l t h f e e s b f a c e c l e d o r  
t r m r d b y n m l i m f r v i l l m

(1) it must be porous that is have enough room to store a commercial quantity or volume of hydrocarbons (2) it must have permeability so that the contained oil or gas will discharge readily when the reservoir is penetrated by a well and (3) there must be a trap which prevents escape of the oil and gas until they are released by the drill bit. Any rock with the above characteristics may become a reservoir for migrating hydrocarbons.

The reservoir character of a rock may be an original feature (intergranular porosity of sandstones) or a secondary feature resulting from chemical changes (solution porosity of lime stones) or it may be the result of physical changes (fracturing of any brittle type rock).

**Types of reservoir rocks** Reservoir rocks may be classified as fragmental or clastic (broken), chemical and biochemical or miscellaneous. They may also be classified as marine and nonmarine reservoir rocks.

**Fragmental type** Some reservoir rocks are aggregates of particles that is fragments of minerals or older rocks. They are also called clastic or detrital rocks because they consist of mineral and rock particles derived from eroded areas. The constituent particles of fragmental rocks may range in size from colloidal particles up to pebbles and boulders. The most common of the fragmental reservoir rocks are siliceous—sandstone, limestones, conglomerates, arkoses, graywacke, and siltstones. Many however are carbonate rocks such as oolitic rocks and coquinas which are made up of oolite and shell fragments that have been only slightly cemented or recrystallized.

Some sandstone reservoir rocks consist either entirely or in part of loose uncemented grains. The grains are brought to the surface in large quantities along with oil during production. The sand grains in most sandstone however are held together by various kinds of cementing material mostly carbonates, silica or clays. Some of the cementing materials may be primary having been deposited along with the sand grains and then precipitated chemically around and between them. Other cementing material may be secondary having been precipitated from water solutions that entered the formation after it was deposited.

Clastic lime stone and dolomites consist of grains of calcite and dolomite that have been transported and deposited just as are grains of quartz. The earliest grains are made up largely of shells, shell fragments, coquina and oolites. Rocks thus formed are always more or less recemented with recrystallized calcite and may resemble a chemically deposited limestone or dolomite. Carbonate rocks formed this way are usually good reservoirs for oil because of their porosity.

**Chemical types** These rocks are made up chiefly of chemical or biochemical precipitate. They are composed of mineral matter that was precipitated at the place where the rocks were formed (in contrast to the transported grains in clastic carbonate). The most important chemical reservoir

rocks are carbonate sediments mostly lime stones and dolomites. Some chemically precipitated rocks consist entirely or almost entirely of silica in the form of chert, novaculite or orthoquartzite but in some of these there has been a certain amount of secondary cementation with silica. Such rocks are quite common but compared with the carbonate rocks they provide few reservoirs. The porosity of this type of rock is largely the result of solution which involves the leaching away of portions of the rock by percolating ground waters.

**Miscellaneous types** Other reservoir rocks include igneous and metamorphic rocks and mixtures of both. Any porous and permeable igneous rock in close association with sedimentary rock may become a reservoir rock when saturated by oil derived from the sediments. Igneous and metamorphic rocks are only a minor source of oil and gas because generally they are not permeable enough and when they are they are not often associated with suitable source rock and a good trap for oil and gas. Porosity and permeability of igneous and metamorphic rocks may result from fracturing or from weathering at the surface prior to subsequent burial.

**Marine and nonmarine types** A distinction may be made between reservoir rocks which were deposited in ancient seas and those of continental origin. Until recently most petroleum was believed to occur in rocks deposited under marine conditions. Consequently there was a little exploration of nonmarine reservoirs. However petroleum has been found in sediments of nonmarine origin such as those in the Uinta Basin of Utah which consist of freshwater lacustrine marls, lime stone and silt stones. The occurrence of oil in nonmarine sediments is sometimes explained as the result of migration of oil along faults, fracture or bedding planes from adjacent marine sediment. Further study of nonmarine reservoir rocks will provide important information on the occurrence and source of oil deposits.

**Properties of reservoir rocks** The porosity and permeability of reservoir rocks as well as the nature of the traps are all factors which evaluate the accumulation of petroleum. Porosity is the total space in the rock (pore void interstices) not occupied by solid material. It is expressed as a percentage. Factors which influence porosity are the size of the rock particles, arrangement, sorting, shape, cementing material and the connate water content. Most oil producing rocks have porosity above 10% and thickness greater than 10 ft. A rock with lower porosity may prove economically exploitable if the thickness is great and the inner rock may be developed successfully if the porosity is unusually large.

Total pore space is not the sole determinant of a petroleum reservoir. A reservoir must also have permeability that is fluids must flow through it with relative ease. Pore space for a tank has a large amount of pore space but the pores are not connected. Therefore it does not have permeability.

# Petroleum processing

The refinery process of refining crude oil into the various products is a complex one. The crude oil is first distilled into various fractions, which are then further refined into the final products. The main products of a refinery are gasoline, diesel fuel, kerosene, and various industrial oils and chemicals.

The petroleum refining industry in the United States is one of the largest in the world. In 1958, the United States produced 3,150,000 barrels of refined petroleum products per day. The refining capacity of the United States in 1958 was 3,150,000 barrels per day. The United States is the largest producer of refined petroleum products in the world.

The United States also has a large refining capacity. In 1958, the United States had a refining capacity of 3,150,000 barrels per day. The United States is the largest producer of refined petroleum products in the world. The United States also has a large refining capacity. In 1958, the United States had a refining capacity of 3,150,000 barrels per day.

Table 1. Refining capacity of the world

Region	Refining capacity (million barrels per day)	Refining capacity (million barrels per day)
United States	9,800,000	9,998,000
Canada	810,000	1,016,000
Latin America	640,000	99,000
Europe	30,000	35,000
Middle East	1,500,000	1,540,000
Far East	1,090,000	1,150,000
Africa	100,000	1,000
Total	18,300,000	20,993,000

World Oil Feb. 15, 1958

Crude oil refining capacity by type of day

Table 2. Capacities of refining operations

Operation	United States (million barrels per day)	Foreign (million barrels per day)
Thermal cracking	100,000	3,000
Thermal cracking	10,000	4,000
Catalytic cracking	41,000	10,000
Catalytic cracking	16,000	3,000
Alkylation	4,000	20,000
Lubrication	20,000	5,000

Petroleum Refining, 1958

Refining capacity by type of day

Accumulated refining capacity by type of day

Table 3. Summary of refining operations

Name	Form	Molecular weight	API gravity	Boiling point (°F)	Refractive index
Petroleum	C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>26</sub>	7	9	97	6
Heptane	C <sub>7</sub> H <sub>16</sub>	86	81.6	158	2
Octane	C <sub>8</sub> H <sub>18</sub>	100	74.1	99	0
Nonane	C <sub>9</sub> H <sub>20</sub>	114	68.7	260	-19
Decane	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>22</sub>	128	64.6	310	-34
Undecane	C <sub>11</sub> H <sub>24</sub>	142	61.3	343	-50
Dodecane	C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>26</sub>	156	58.0	387	-60

Oil refining process: The crude oil is first distilled into various fractions, which are then further refined into the final products. The main products of a refinery are gasoline, diesel fuel, kerosene, and various industrial oils and chemicals.

1,500,000 bbl/day all other products (including waste lubricating oil, asphalt, etc. and other) 1,590,000 bbl/day

Crude oil is a mixture of many different hydrocarbon compounds of the paraffin type (wax, etc.) and of the naphthenes (cycloparaffins) making the hydrocarbon mixture very complex. The refining process can be grouped under three main headings: (1) paraffin cracking, (2) breaking the remaining large chemical compounds into smaller chemical compounds, and (3) breaking the desired chemical compounds by chemical reaction, such as polymerization, reforming, alkylation, and isomerization.

Refinery products include gasoline, kerosene, diesel, and other refined pure chemical compounds and mixtures (chemical compounds). Some of the hydrocarbon compounds obtained in gasoline are shown in Table 3 along with the individual specific gravity, molecular weight, and normal boiling point.

A simplified flow sheet of refinery operations is shown in Fig. 1. By means of distillation, a typical crude oil may be separated quite easily into many fractions of average weight. Some of these are shown in Table 4.

A more complete flow sheet of a refinery is shown in Fig. 2. Here are included the various equipment, refining equipment, extract, and unit processes, and the facilities. Fig. 3 is a schematic diagram of a refinery for producing lubricating oil.

Separating the crude oil. There are two principal steps in the refining process: cracking and distillation. Both of these processes are carried out in a distillation column. The crude oil is first distilled into various fractions, which are then further refined into the final products.

Top product of distillation is the crude oil. The crude oil is distilled and dehydrated, then passed through a heat exchanger, and then through a distillation column. The distillation column is operated at a temperature of 650°F. The heat exchanger is operated at a temperature of 150°F. The distillation column is operated at a pressure of 100 psi. The distillation column is operated at a flow rate of 100 bbl/day. The distillation column is operated at a reflux ratio of 10. The distillation column is operated at a bottoms product of 100 bbl/day. The distillation column is operated at a top product of 100 bbl/day. The distillation column is operated at a bottoms product of 100 bbl/day. The distillation column is operated at a top product of 100 bbl/day.



stones or dolomites Bioherms or organic reefs are porous dome-like mounds or otherwise circumscribed masses built exclusively or mainly by edimentary organisms such as corals algae brachiopods mollusks or crinoids and enclosed in normal rock of different lithologic character See BIOHERM BIOTRAME

**Combination traps** The traps result from both structural and stratigraphic conditions An example of such a trap is the salt dome Salt dome are cylindrical or steeply conical masses of rock material which were forced to flow plastically under heavy pressure These masses called plugs or domes originate at unknown depths and pierce the overlying sedimentary strata Three kinds of traps are associated with salt plugs cap rock flanking and and supercap sands Cap rock consists of calcite gypsum and anhydrite and occurs as a capping over the tops of the salt plugs Flanking sands are strata abutting upon and cut off by the salt plug Supercap sands are sandy strata that arch over the tops of the plugs in the form of structural domes See SALT DOME

#### RESERVOIR FLUIDS

Fluids fill the voids or pore spaces in all reservoir rocks The fluid may be water water and oil water and gas or a mixture of water oil and gas The fluid content of a gas pool consists of water and gas that of an oil pool consists of gas oil and water There is almost an infinite variation in the composition relative amounts and properties of these fluids in various reservoirs

The distribution of gas oil and water in the reservoir depends upon relative buoyancy relative saturation of pore space with each fluid capillary and displacement pressures as well as the porosity permeability and composition of the reservoir rock In traps that contain gas oil and water the fluids take on a zonal character Gas being the lightest fills the pores nearer the top of the trap Below the gas there is a zone in which the pore filling liquid is chiefly oil and below that water alone occurs the contact being the oil water table Where there is gas but no oil the gas is immediately underlain by water and the contact is the gas water table Interstitial water (adorned water or wetting water which lines the pore walls) is present throughout the reservoir occupying from a few to about 50% but generally between 10 and 30% of the pore space The amount of interstitial water in a petroleum reservoir is commonly measured in percentage of effective pore space and is known as the water saturation

Oil field waters are waters associated with oil and gas pools They may be classified as meteoric water connate water and mixed water Most oil field waters are saline except at shallow depth See OIL FIELD WATERS

Oil saturation is the amount of oil contained in a petroleum reservoir It is measured as a percentage of the effective pore space

Gas volume or natural gas content of a petroleum reservoir may range from small quantities dissolved in oil up to 100% of petroleum content

Natural gas may be classified as associated when it occurs with oil and as nonassociated when it occurs alone The natural gas in a reservoir may occur as free gas as gas dissolved in oil gas dissolved in water or as liquefied gas See NATURAL GAS OIL AND GAS WELLS PETROLEUM RESERVOIR ENGINEERING [DDC]

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#### Petroleum microbiology

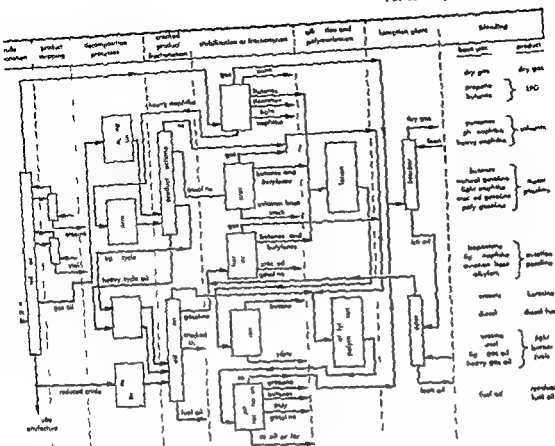
Those aspects of microbiological science and engineering of interest to the petroleum industry including the role of microbes in petroleum formation exploration production manufacturing and storage

**Petroleum formation** Dead marine microorganisms comprise much of the edimentary material from which petroleum is formed Other bacteria such as *Pseudomonas* *Achromobacter* *Desulfobrio* and *Flavobacterium* species modify the organic nature of this material The extent to which they actually convert organic sediment to petroleum hydrocarbons is uncertain because this has not yet been demonstrated in the laboratory

**Petroleum exploration** Many microorganisms are able to employ hydrocarbons as a carbon source converting them either to carbon dioxide and water or to intermediate organic compounds The soil above a petroleum reservoir may contain gaseous emanations such as methane and ethane from the reservoir and it is believed that these may be detectable by the concentrations of certain hydrocarbon utilizing bacteria (*Methanomonas* species) in the soil or by the growth of suitable cultures planted there Such exploration techniques have been intensively investigated but their success remains questionable

**Petroleum production** Microorganisms (*Crenothrix* *Beggiatoa* *Pseudomonas*) are effective and costly contaminants of drilling fluid and secondary recovery injection waters and chemical agents like formaldehyde and quaternary ammonium compounds are necessary for their control Bacterial corrosion of iron pipe particularly buried pipe by *Desulfobrio* species is a major problem in the petroleum industry It is generally treated by protective coatings or by chemical protection Bacterial deterioration of refined petroleum products in storage of a plant and a plant containing a diesel oil emulsion used with cutting machinery are also industrial problems [EJBF]

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2 Sh m i d g m f ef ry i l g h t f (m ty g l k d d i l l t s)

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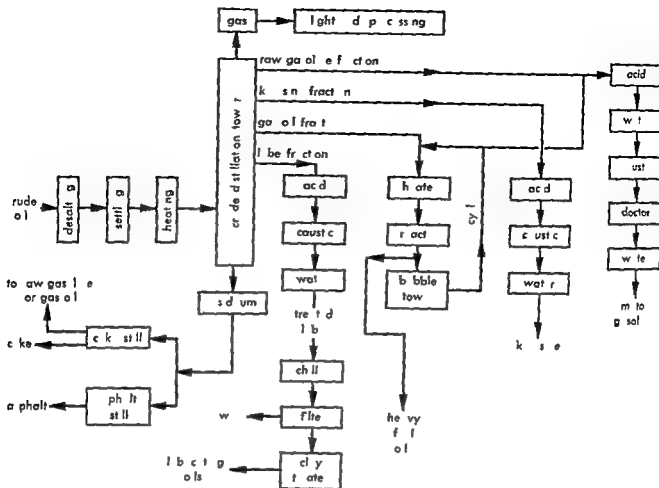


Fig 1 Simplified flow sheet of crude oil refining

Into the bottom of the tower about 1-2 lb of steam per gallon of crude oil are usually introduced to make the separation easier. From the top of the tower some gases are evolved and sent to units producing light ends. The next higher boiling fraction is the gasoline followed successively by the kerosene, the gas oil, the cracking stock, and the lubricating distillate. Below the feed entrance a fraction called the residue is removed.

The temperature of the feed to the tower depends considerably upon the ultimate plans for the residual oil. If this residual oil is to be processed further for the manufacture of lubricating oils, the feed is not heated to a high temperature.

Each of the streams from the distillation unit must be treated further before it can be sold. The gasoline fraction is treated then blended with other stocks. Finally certain chemicals called additives are added to the stream to improve its properties. See DISTILLATION FRACTIONATING COLUMN.

Table 4 Some factors obtained from crude oil

Fraction	Carbon content	Hydrogen weight	API gravity	Boiling range
Gas	1-4	16-58	43.8-58	- 9.31
Gasolene	5-10	17-18	58-66	31-160
Kerosene	10-16	18-19	40-46	356-500
Gas oil	15-18	18-19	35-38	500-1000
Lube oil	19-25	18-19	30-35	610-800
Residue	26-30	18-19	20-25	800+

**Lubricating oil processing** The most important property of lubricating oil is its viscosity. The lube fraction produced in the vacuum distillation column contains some hydrocarbons that give the oil a poor viscosity-temperature characteristic. In addition, the lube oil fraction has poor oxidation resistance and contains wax and other impurities which must be removed. Consequently, the lubricating oil fraction must be treated to remove these impurities and the concentrations of the following free radicals forming material: low viscosity index material, wax, unstable compounds which may decompose to form asphaltic substances or other chemical that affect the color of the lube oil product.

The flow sheet shown in Fig 3 describes a process for the production of lube oil. Not only the lubricating fraction but also a portion of the residue fraction is used to make the lubricating oil. In this case, the residue is treated with a solvent to remove the asphaltic material. The deasphalted residue is further extracted along with the other lubricating oil fraction and washed and treated clay-treated blended with additives and then sent to storage.

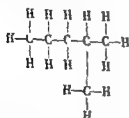
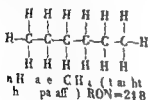
The treatment of the asphaltic material for the removal of sulfur and other impurities is a process called hydrotreating. Sulfur and other impurities are removed from the oil after the extraction process. The final product is a lube oil that meets the required specifications.

carbonyl format and gasoline much higher octane number

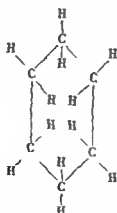
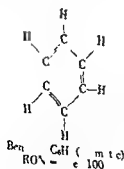
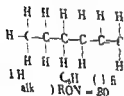
About 80% of the cracking capacity in the United States today is of the catalytic type. See CRACKING.

**Rebuilding the desired chemical compounds**  
The saturated hydrocarbon paraffins shown in Table 3 have relatively low octane numbers. They can be altered however by chemical reaction to yield a different kind of molecule with high octane character. The important reaction is the cracking of the molecule into smaller molecules. The light paraffins (benzene family) have the highest octane numbers. The heavy paraffins (naphthalene family) have the lowest octane numbers.

Below are some of the formulas for the paraffins and the corresponding octane numbers (RON). All the formulas are in any other form (RON 248) not be zero which has octane number for 100.



2 Methyl pentane (branched paraffin) RON = 73



Cyclohexane (cyclic paraffin) RON = 83

Among the many processes used for refining petroleum, the most important is the cracking process.

1 Hydrogenation is used mainly for producing saturated hydrocarbon from unsaturated. During World War II this process was used for making octane from isooctene. More recently this process has been used almost exclusively for dieselization.

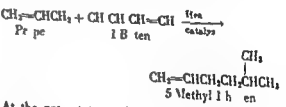
2 Dehydrogenation is the removal of hydrogen from a molecule. For example, the end may be made from n-hexane. This reaction is important in the production of ethylene.

3 Aromatization yields aromatic hydrocarbons from other types. An example is the conversion of n-hexane to benzene. Aromatization is an important process in the production of gasoline.

4 Cyclization is the transformation of a carbocation into a cyclic structure. This process is important for the production of gasoline from n-hexane.

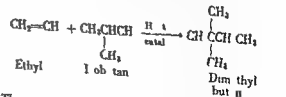
5 Isomerization is the rearrangement of the atoms in a molecule. An example is the conversion of n-hexane to isohexane. In 1958, the U.S. refining industry was about 30,000 bbl/day of this process. It is a rapidly expanding process in the industry.

6 Polymerization is the process of building up molecules from smaller ones. For example, propylene and butene, which are present in the gases of the thermal cracking operation, are polymerized to form a liquid material with a high octane number.



At the present time, the catalytic polymerization capacity in the United States is over 140,000 bbl/day.

7 Alkylation makes use of two more molecules in the reaction. The process is an important one, but it is a difficult one to carry out. It yields a liquid material with a high octane number. 2,2-dimethylbutane is the product.



The reaction is very important in the refining of petroleum. In 1959, the alkylation capacity in the United States was 360,000 bbl/day. The process is a very important one in the petroleum refining industry. **5. ALKYLATION, AROMATIZATION, HYDROCRACKING, ISOMERIZATION, OCTANE UPGRADE, REFORMING, and PETROLEUM REFINING.**

**Treating processes.** Boiling the crude oil and the removal of impurities is the first step in the refining process. The impurities are removed by distillation.

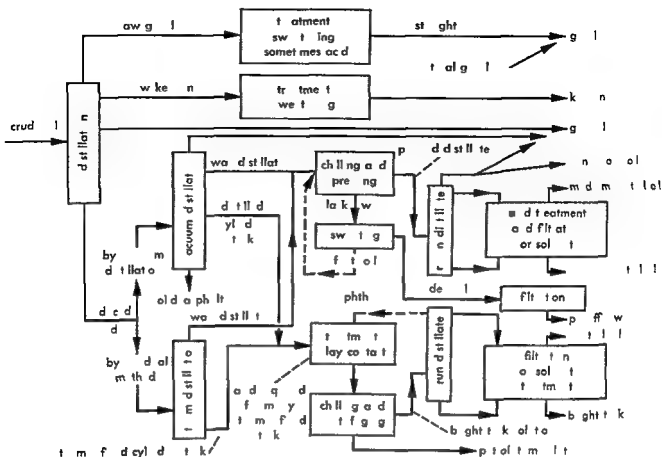


Fig 3 Schematic diagram for refinery for light oils (from W L N Isot Petroleum Refinery Engineering 4th ed McGraw Hill 1958)

trifuging processes are still in operation. In this process the lubricant is mixed with about 50-80% naphtha and chilled to some low temperature. If the pour point of the finished oil is to be 70°F then the stock is chilled to approximately -10°F for a pour point of 0°F it is necessary to chill to -40°F. The cold solution is fed to a centrifuge where the wax is separated from the oil. The capacity of one of the centrifuges may be as high as 75-100 bbl/day of oil. The centrifuges operate at around 16,000 rpm and require approximately 1 kw of power. See CENTRIFUGATION.

**Filtration** This is also an important operation in the refining of petroleum. Regular gravity type filters are used wherever possible but occasionally the solids are too finely divided to settle. There are many types of filters used for the removal of finely divided clay from treated stocks in the clay content process. The filters are classified as filter press, leaf filters, rotary filters and others. See FILTRATION.

**Breaking the large molecules** The major product from the refinery is the motor fuel (gasoline). Of course kerosene, diesel oil, jet fuels (military kerosene fraction) and others are extremely important also. However, each barrel of oil charged to the distillation tower has a given fraction of gasoline. This varies but on the average is not over 20% of the total volume of feed. If more gasoline than this is obtainable by distillation is desired and a catalyst is necessary to react to other

means than straight separation to get more gasoline. This can be done either by recombining the gaseous or lighter molecules (polymerization) or by breaking down the heavier molecule (cracking).

**Cracking** Table 3 shows that gasoline molecules seldom contain more than 11-12 atoms of carbon. The crude oil however contains many molecules consisting of more than 50-60 atoms of carbon. The heavy naphtha fraction and the kerosene and gas oil fractions for example all contain large molecules compared with the gasoline fraction. In order to use the entire refinery production the large or heavy molecules must be broken into smaller ones of the gasoline type. This process is called cracking.

The cracking may be done either by the thermal means (maintaining the heavy fractions at high temperature) or by catalytic means. In thermal cracking the charge stock are usually light and heavy gas oils, residual oil or any of the topping column fractions heavier than the gasoline fraction. The resulting gasoline yield depends on the composition of the charge stock but will range from 15 to 40% by volume of gasoline (100-400°F boiling range).

In catalytic cracking the fractions to be cracked are contacted with a catalyst at low pressure and a lower temperature than in thermal cracking although the temperatures are still almost as high. Catalytic cracking gives much higher yields of gasoline.



properties of the product. The important treating processes are desalting and dehydrating, sweetening and desulfurization, acid treatment, clay contact adsorption treatment, vapor phase treatment and solvent treatment. Some of these processes are used both on the crude oil and on the products, whereas others are used on only one or the other.

**Desalting and dehydration of the crude oil.** The salt content of the crude oil which enters the refinery may be as high as 4 or 5% and the water content may be much higher than the equilibrium amount because water is present as an emulsion.

Because of the high temperatures of the heater tubes the introduction of the wet crude into the heaters would be dangerous. In addition the salt would precipitate onto the tube walls, reducing the rate of heat transmission and thereby the efficiency of the heaters.

Many processes are available for the removal of both the salt and the water from the crude oil. They are grouped into four types as shown in Table 5.

The crude oil (containing the salt and the oil) is heated, an emulsion breaker is added and the resultant mass is settled or even filtered to remove the salt and water phase from the oil phase.

**Sweetening and desulfurization.** Since the original crude oil contains some sulfur compounds, the resulting gasoline and other products also contain sulfur compounds including hydrogen sulfide, mercaptans, sulfide, disulfide and thiophenes.

The processes used to sweeten or desulfurize the products depend upon the type of sulfur compound present and the specifications of the finished gasoline or other stocks.

Mercaptans are removed or converted into less undesirable sulfides in these ways:

1. Mercaptan removal. (a) Uniol process uses an alkaline solution of methyl alcohol. (b) Solutizer processes use sodium hydroxide along with minute amounts of sodium isobutyrate and (c) Mercapal process uses an alkaline solution of naphthenic acids and phenols. These are regeneration processes.

2. Mercaptan conversion (oxidation to disulfides). (a) Lead sulfide doctor sweetening. (b) Copper chloride oxygen sweetening. (c) Sodium hypochlorite sweetening. and (d) copper sweetening.

3. Hydrogen sulfide removal by regeneration solution processes using aqueous solutions of the fol-

lowing: (a) sodium hydroxide, (b) calcium hydroxide, (c) trisodium phosphate and (d) sodium carbonate.

Catalytic desulfurization is used to convert the sulfur to hydrogen sulfide which is removed later by one of the above processes.

**Acid treatment.** This process removes the coloring materials from base stocks. Lubricating oil made from paraffin base crudes do not require acid treatment while distillate from the mixed and asphalt types of crudes generally are refined with acid. A 93% solution of sulfuric acid (66 Beaume acid) is most commonly used in acid treating. Sometimes a more dilute acid is used especially when treating is done for color removal only. Occasionally a 98% acid is used for lubricating stocks.

The amount of acid used will vary with the type of crude and with the specification of the product. For example: (1) natural gasoline: 2 lb of acid per barrel of product (the process is commonly run at 70-90 F). (2) straight run gasoline: 3-5 lb of acid per barrel of product (70-90 F). kerosene: up to 20 lb of acid per barrel of product (90-130 F). lubricating oils: 0-50 lb of acid per barrel of product. The oils from Pennsylvania crude require little or no acid treatment. mixed base crude: up to 70 lb/bbl and the asphaltic crudes require up to 50 lb bbl (120-180 F).

The acid and the product being treated are agitated so that there is intimate contact between them. Some of the acid treatment processes require 1 minute or less of contact time between the acid and the material being treated. Kerosene may require as much as 30 min contact time while the lubricating stocks may require 1-2 hour. Continuous processes are in use today and contact time is being shortened considerably.

**Clay contact adsorption treatment.** The use of clay treating for the purification of oils was known as early as 1822. Percolation filtration was ideally suited for the slight decolorization required by the Pennsylvania oils. The term percolation is applied to the filtering method in which the oil passes through a bed of granular adsorbent clay.

Contact filtration makes use of a direct agitation of a very fine clay with the oil at elevated temperatures for a given time.

During the clay treatment the oil is neutralized and decolorized by the removal of the suspended matter. The decolorization follows an adsorption process in which the asphaltic and resinous chemicals of the oils are adsorbed on the surface of the clay particles.

The oil is mixed with the clay in the ratio of 20-80 lb of clay per barrel of oil (that is from 5-30% of the weight of the oil). The commonly used clays are fuller's earth, bentonite, illite and alumina and activated alumina.

After the oil and clay are mixed the slurry formed is allowed to settle using proper settling. After settling treatment the resultant mixture is heated to the treating temperature (which may

Table 5 Desalting and dehydrating methods

Method	Temp		Type of treatment
	t	F	
Chemical precipitation	140-150		0.0-3% wt water 0.5% wt lime oil dilution
Filtration precipitation	150-200		10,000-0.000 lb Up to 40% wt diluted
Gravity precipitation	180-200		Up to 0% wt diluted (some times new water added)

All petroleum except the condensed gas (ey) hydrocarbons and asphaltene is the lighter grade crude for export to the Middle East and is refined into petroleum products and used for fuel and lubrication. Good lubricating oils are made from such crude that is of different physical and chemical properties.

Before the development of oil extraction methods natural petroleum was used for the production of lubricating oil but it has been replaced by a better quality of oil. The oil is refined by distillation and then treated with sulfur and nitrogen compounds to remove impurities. The oil is then refined by distillation and then treated with sulfur and nitrogen compounds to remove impurities.

Natural petroleum is a mixture of hydrocarbons. The relative amounts of the various components depend on the source of the oil. The oil is refined by distillation and then treated with sulfur and nitrogen compounds to remove impurities. The oil is then refined by distillation and then treated with sulfur and nitrogen compounds to remove impurities.

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Small quantities of sulfur and nitrogen are found in petroleum. These elements are removed during the refining process. The oil is then refined by distillation and then treated with sulfur and nitrogen compounds to remove impurities. The oil is then refined by distillation and then treated with sulfur and nitrogen compounds to remove impurities.

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### Petroleum reservoir engineering

The petroleum reservoir is a natural storage of oil and gas. The reservoir is composed of porous rock and is saturated with oil and gas. The reservoir is composed of porous rock and is saturated with oil and gas. The reservoir is composed of porous rock and is saturated with oil and gas.

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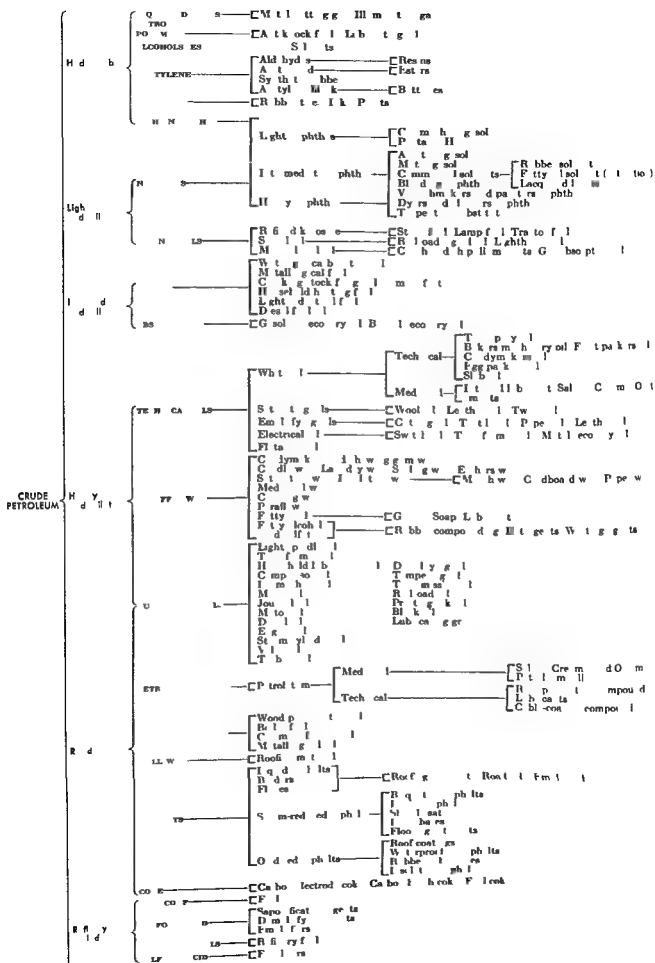
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$$V = \frac{\left( \frac{R - R_i + B}{B} \right) - C - \left( \frac{1}{B} - \frac{1}{B_i} \right) G - \frac{\pi}{B}}{R - (B - B_i) / B_p} \quad (2)$$



## Crude petroleum and some of its products





where  $G$  = initial reservoir volume of free gas phase present

$W$  = net water intrusion volume

$N_p$  = cumulative oil production

$R_p$  = cumulative gas oil ratio (total gas produced divided by  $N_p$ )

$R$  = gas solubility in oil

$G$  = cumulative gas injection if any subscript elsewhere indicates initial values

In this equation  $N$  and  $G$  are the basic unknown constants.  $N_p$ ,  $R_p$ , and  $G$  are the actual quantities of production or injection and  $R$ ,  $B$ , and  $B_g$  as well as their initial values are functions of the pressure and can be determined by experiments with the oil and gas.  $W$  is in principle a variable unknown.

If it is known that the water intrusion term is not of an important magnitude and can be neglected, the material balance equation reduces to one with the two constant unknowns  $N$  and  $G$ . Application of the equation to two or more time periods for which the other terms are known will then permit its solution for  $N$  and  $G$ .

If  $G$  may be taken as zero, but the water intrusion term  $W$  is not an insignificant factor, calculations of  $N$  on ignoring  $W$  will show an increasing trend as production continues. This in itself will be strong evidence that water encroachment is playing a role in the pressure performance. Extrapolation of the calculated values of  $N$  to the time of initial production will often indicate reasonable values of the true magnitude of  $N$ . Conversely, if the latter is known or can be estimated independently, the material balance equation can be inserted to calculate the volumes of water encroachment corresponding to the production performance.

**Darcy's law permeability** The rates at which the hydrocarbon fluids can be withdrawn from a reservoir depend on the number of wells draining the reservoir, the average thickness of the formation, and the inherent transmissibility of the reservoir rock for these fluids. The last factor is expressed by the term permeability. Its significance lies in that it is the coefficient of proportionality in the basic physical law governing the flow of fluids through porous material, namely Darcy's law (see FLUID FLOW PRINCIPLES). In its generalized form applicable to flow in a direction  $s$  inclined to the horizontal by the angle  $\theta$ , it may be expressed as

$$u = -\frac{k}{\mu} \left( \frac{\partial p}{\partial s} + \rho g \sin \theta \right) \quad (3)$$

where  $u$  is the volumetric rate of flow per unit area,  $\mu$  the fluid viscosity,  $\rho$  the fluid density,  $g$  the acceleration of gravity,  $\partial p / \partial s$  the pressure gradient, and  $k$  the permeability. If  $u$  is expressed in cc/sec,  $\mu$  in centipoise,  $\partial p / \partial s$  in atmosphere/cm, and  $\rho g$  in atmosphere/cm, then  $k$  is in darcys.

The permeability unit darcy may be defined as the permeability of a porous medium which will carry a flow of 1 ml/(cc)(cm) of a 1 centipoise

(cp) viscosity fluid under a pressure or hydraulic gradient of 1 atmosphere/cm.

In most practical applications it is convenient to express the actual permeability in the unit of the millidarcy or thousandth of a darcy (md). Consolidated producing and generally have permeabilities in the range of a few to several hundred millidarcys. The permeability of unconsolidated sands and fractured or highly vugular limestones often range in the thousand of millidarcys. Tight productive limestones frequently have matrix permeabilities even lower than 1 md.

In the above differential forms of Darcy's law the permeability  $k$  is to be considered as being variable from point to point in the medium if the latter is not uniform throughout, even though the fluid itself persists as a single phase liquid or gas. It may also have different values for different directions of flow. The primary variable is the pressure. The validity of Darcy's law has been established by extensive experimentation, although as most linear relationships do, it tends to break down if the fluid velocities are indefinitely increased. Within such limits which encompass virtually all situations of practical importance, the flow is considered to be viscous.

The permeability defined above is independent of the nature of the fluid provided it occupies the whole of the pore space and depends only on the character of the porous medium. The viscosity and density alone suffice to discriminate between one fluid and another. At low pressures, however, permeabilities measured for gas flow have been found by L. J. Klinkenberg to be higher than those determined for liquid flow, but this effect is of minor importance except in laboratory experimentation on low permeability material.

Perhaps the simplest application of Darcy's law to a problem involving one of actual oil and gas production relates to the steady-state horizontal flow into a well bore. Assuming the flow is radially symmetrical about the well, it is readily found that the pressure will increase as the logarithm of the distance from the center of the well. The rate of liquid flow is then given by the formula

$$q = \frac{2\pi kh(p_e - p_w)}{\mu B \ln r_e / r_w} \quad (4)$$

where  $k$  is the permeability,  $h$  the formation thickness,  $p_e$  the pressure at the well of radius  $r_w$ ,  $p_w$  the external pressure at radius  $r_e$ , the viscosity, and  $B$  the formation volume factor of the liquid.

In common practical units this equation becomes

$$q = \frac{0.00306 kh(p_e - p_w)}{\mu B L g_o} \text{ barr l / day} \quad (5)$$

where  $k$  is expressed in millidarcy,  $h$  in feet,  $\mu$  in centipoises, and  $p_e$  and  $p_w$  in psi. The external radius  $r_e$  though not precisely defined represents the radius from which the liquid is being drained or that where the pressure may be assumed to be  $p_e$ .

Formula to calculate radial flow of gas into a well through a flow rate of 60 F and 1 atm pressure is defined by the equation

$$q = \frac{0.3056kh(p^2 - p_w^2)}{\mu Z T \ln r / r_w} \quad \text{ft}^3/\text{d} \quad (6)$$

where  $Z$  is the compressibility factor of the gas at reservoir conditions and  $T$  is the temperature in (Rankine).

Multi phase production systems always exist in the fluid phase. G and oil flow through the same pores. But when gas and oil flow together, the relative permeability of the immiscible mixture is not the same as the sum of the individual permeabilities.

Experimental studies show that the multi phase flow through porous media is still being described by the Darcy type equation provided it is applied to the effective permeability of the fluid phase system. The effective permeability of the fluid phase system is a function of the relative permeability of the individual phases and the relative flow in the system. The relative permeability of the individual phases is a function of the relative flow in the system.

$$\begin{aligned} &= -\frac{k}{\mu} \left( \frac{\partial p}{\partial r} + g p \right) \\ &= -\frac{k}{\mu} \left( \frac{\partial p}{\partial r} + g p \right) \quad (7) \\ &= -\frac{k}{\mu} \left( \frac{\partial p}{\partial r} + g p \right) \end{aligned}$$

The relative permeability and the relative permeability of the individual phases are the most important factors in the relative permeability of the mixture. The relative permeability of the individual phases is a function of the relative flow in the system. The relative permeability of the mixture is a function of the relative flow in the system.

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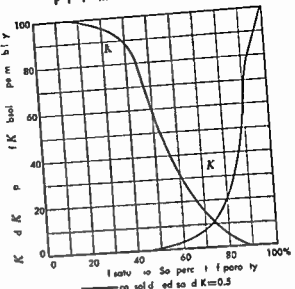


Fig 1. Gas relative permeability versus oil relative permeability. (After B. I. AIME)

gas and oil flowing through a porous medium. The relative permeability of the individual phases is a function of the relative flow in the system. The relative permeability of the mixture is a function of the relative flow in the system. The relative permeability of the mixture is a function of the relative flow in the system.

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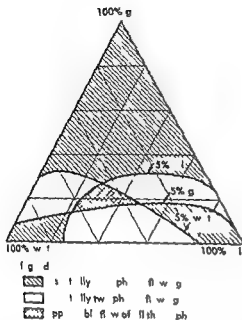


Fig 4 C mpo t d t b t f th e-ph f w  
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n o o r l i t h o l g e c b a r r i e r c o n t r o l u s i o n w i l l b e  
c o r e p d i n g l y l i m i t e d

A major phase of the study of a water drive  
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w i t h t h l s s c a l h e t c o n d u c t i o n e q u a t i o n n a m e l y

$$\eta \nabla^2 p = \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} \quad \eta = L / \phi \mu \quad (9)$$

To a e r y c o e a p p r o x i m a t i o n p c a n b e r e p l a c e d  
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e r v o i r t h e r a t e f w a t e r n a o n i n t o t h  
l a t t e r C a n e l y f m b r e d o r a u m e d p r e a s s u r e  
h o r a t t h e w a t e r o i l u d r y t h e r a t e o f  
f l w a r o t h b u n d r y n d i n t h o i l r e s e r v o i r  
c n b e a l c l e d T h e g e o m t c a l a n d p h y s i c a l  
p a r t e s f t h e a q f e a b o u t w h l a d a n c e  
s f o r m t i s s t e n m e g a n b d t e m i n e d i n  
a n e m p i r i c l n e b y t a l a n d e r r o r a d j u s t m e n t s  
s o a s t m a k e t h e p r e d i c t e d p r o d u c t h a v e  
m t c h t h t b r v d n t h e o u r f p r d u c t i n t h e  
o i l r e s e r v o i r

M a y t u d e s of t h t y p e n d f e l d h e r e a t i o n s  
h o w t h a t t h e p a s s e r i n w a t e r d r i r e s e r v o i r s i s  
a t e s i n e T h a t i s t h e a g e r e s e r v o i r p e s  
e d p e n d s n o t o n l y t h e i m u l t y o i l p r o d u c t i o n  
b u t a l s o n t h e r a t e a t w h i c h i t h a s b e e n  
w i t h d r a w n S h r p i n r e a s s d u c t i v i t y w i l l  
t e n d t o e l e a t t h p r e u e d l i m p e u n t  
w i t h d a w a l C a t h a s i n w i t h d r a l r a t e w i l l g e n  
e a l l y i n d e c l i n e p r e m d e c l i n e n d f t n e e n  
l a d t o b i l d p s i r e s e r v o i r p r e u e

W a t e r d r i v e e r v w i l l p e m i t m a i n t e n a n c e  
o f h i g h r a t e s f t o t f l u i d w i t h d a w t h u g h  
m o t o f t h e o n m l f e a l t h o u g h i n c r a i n g v o l  
m f w a t e p r d c t i n w l l c n t n a l l y e d e  
t h e n t o l r i e s T h e r e s e r v o i r w i l l t e d t o  
t a b l i z e a f t e r n t l d e c l i n e w h i h a e n e c e s a y  
t d u c t h w a t e r t f l o w i n t o t h e l z o n e a t  
u f f i n t a t e s t o r e p l a e t h e l w t h d w a l s C  
o l l i s s l e n l y m o d e a t e l y d u i g t h e  
p r d i n g l f e a n d n r l i n t t h d e c l i e i n  
e r r o r p u

T h w a t e r d r i v e m h n m f p e l i m p o  
i n e b e u s o f t h h i g h o l e c o e r s e t o f t e n  
i d s R e o y f t s h g h a 50 c o f t h  
i t a l l i p l e a e n o t u n c m m o n a d u n d  
r y f a a b l d i n t h e y a y b e a h g h a

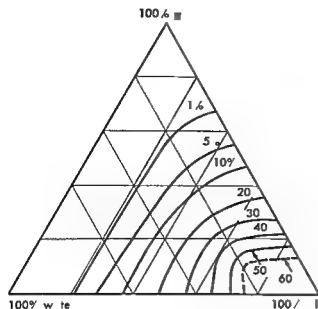


Fig 2 Curv of constant oil relative permeability in flow of oil gas and water through an unconsolidated sand as functions of the fluid saturation (After Elliott and Lewis AIME Trans)

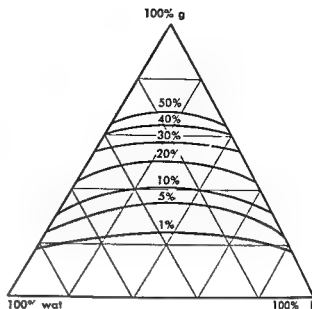


Fig 3 Curv of constant gas relative permeability in flow of oil gas and water through an unconsolidated sand as functions of the fluid saturation (After Elliott and Lewis AIME Trans)

features of multiphase fluid flow in the porous medium of interest. For example, the nature of composite flow streams which can be maintained in different saturation ranges is illustrated in Fig 4. It will be seen that simultaneous flow of all three phases in significant amounts will occur only in a very limited range of fluid saturations. By further reference to Figs 1, 2, and 3 it will be observed that the composite permeability in multiphase flow will generally be but a nominal fraction of that for single-phase flow.

**Computing components of flow.** The actual fraction of any composite flow stream contributed by a particular phase can be calculated by combining the corresponding Darcy equations. For example, when gas and oil are flowing simultaneously, the fraction  $f_g$  of the total volumetric flux  $q$  represented by the free gas phase is given by

$$f_g = \frac{\lambda_g}{\lambda_g + \lambda_o} \left[ 1 - \frac{\lambda_o}{q} \left\{ \frac{\partial P}{\partial s} - (\rho_o - \rho_g)g \sin \theta \right\} \right] \quad (8)$$

where the term  $\lambda_o/\lambda_g$  are the oil and gas phase mobilities that is, the ratio of their permeabilities—the effective value—to their mobilities  $P$  is the capillary pressure  $p_c = p_o - p_g$ . The corresponding fraction  $f_o$  of the oil phase is simply  $1 - f_g$ . For oil-water flow streams the oil and water fractions are given by the same equation after appropriate change in the subscripts.

Relative and effective permeabilities are of importance not only in determining the detailed dynamics of the displacement of oil from reservoir rocks but also control the absolute flow rate. In the above equations for rates of production from well, the permeabilities must be corrected for the connate water even if it is in its irreducible state and immobile although the steady-state single-

phase flow equation will give only approximation of the actual flow magnitudes if both gas and oil are being produced.

**Energy and producing mechanisms.** Two basic though elementary observations underlie the essential principles of reservoir engineering. The first is that movement of viscous fluids such as oil through a reservoir rock involves the consumption of energy. Secondly, the withdrawal of oil from an oil reservoir requires a replacement of its volume in the reservoir space. Considered together, these simple facts provide the framework for understanding the various types of oil-producing mechanisms.

Energy required for movement of oil from a reservoir rock into the producing wells may be drawn from four sources: (1) reservoir rock compression, (2) compression of reservoir and surrounding liquids, (3) compression of solution and free gas, and (4) gravity head alone. Each of these withdrawals and their individual importance depend not only upon the amount of energy available but also on the effectiveness with which it can be used to displace the oil.

Upon release of the fluid pressure within the pores of a reservoir rock with removal of the oil and gas, the rock matrix will tend to increase its volume by compression and compact the rock mass. However, in consolidated rock the magnitude of such compaction within the reservoir itself will usually be too small to play a significant role in the oil expulsion process. Oil recovery and reservoir compaction has usually occurred in a few unconsolidated sand reservoirs, but in most cases the competence of the overburden apparently make the compaction effect of minor importance.

The expansion of the connate water within a reservoir during the waterflood process will also generally be a minor





80%. The main factors controlling the recovery are the uniformity of the oil reservoir body and the viscosity of the reservoir crude. Variations of the permeability in the producing formation may lead to channeling of the invading water through high permeability zones and premature drowning out of the producing wells so that while the oil displacement efficiency may be high in the invaded strata the over all average sweep efficiency and recovery will be relatively low. The viscosity of the reservoir crude controls the local displacement efficiency. The latter will be reduced as the oil viscosity increases. Because of this factor water drive recoveries in reservoirs producing oils of gravity lower than about 20 degrees API may be considerably less than the 50% frequently observed for high gravity producing reservoir.

The water drive producing mechanism controls the production in important reservoirs in all major oil provinces. Many of the large reservoirs in Texas along the Gulf Coast operate under water drives as does the East Texas Field, the largest in the country. The two main and in the gigantic Burgan Field in Kuwait are virtually perfect water drive reservoirs.

**Solution gas drives** The gas dissolved in reservoir crudes is the most common energy source and displacement medium involved in oil production. When it is the dominant agent for oil recovery the producing mechanism is termed the solution gas drive or depletion drive. The decline in reservoir pressure which necessarily follows any appreciable production of oil and gas will lead to liberation of solution gas within the pores of the rock and corresponding replacement of the volume of reservoir fluid withdrawn if the oil is gas saturated at the initial pressure as it usually is. If the adjoining aquifer does not then supply an influx of water to provide for continued replacement of the oil with draws the pressure will keep on falling with continued additional evolution of dissolved gas. Ultimately the pressure and the dissolved gas will be depleted and the economic life of the reservoir will be terminated.

The reservoir pressures and displacement processes in dissolved gas drive systems basically are not representative. They depend only on the reservoir volume of total fluid withdrawals although the rate and manner of oil production may affect the relative amounts of gas and oil produced and hence the total composite voidage for fixed quantities of oil recovery. As the evolved gas builds up the gas saturation the permeability to the gas will grow facilitating it escape to the producing well without a corresponding increased displacement of the reservoir oil. As a result after an initial period of rather constant gas-oil ratio at the level of the initial solution value the ratio will rise steadily to peaks of the order of 10-20 times as great and then decline as the contribution of the free gas falls with decreasing pressure. The well and field producing capacities will all fall because the driving reservoir pressure drops and the permeability to the oil is reduced with increasing gas saturation.

Except for local effects about the producing well themselves the over all history of depletion of a gas drive reservoir can be predicted by the equation

$$\frac{dS}{dp} = \frac{\alpha S + (1 - S - S_w)\epsilon + \zeta(\kappa - rR/\gamma)}{1 + \frac{\mu}{\mu_g}(\kappa - rR/\gamma)} \quad (10)$$

$$\text{where } \alpha = \frac{B}{\beta} \frac{dR}{dp} \quad \epsilon = \frac{-1}{B_g} \frac{dB_g}{dp} \quad \zeta = \frac{\mu}{\mu} \frac{dB}{dp}$$

$$\text{and } \gamma = \frac{\mu B}{\mu_g B_g} \quad \kappa = \frac{k}{k}$$

$r$  is the fraction of any of the produced gas which is returned to the reservoir  $R$  the current gas-oil ratio can be related to the other variables as

$$R = R + \gamma x \quad (11)$$

In these equations  $\alpha$ ,  $\epsilon$ ,  $\zeta$ ,  $\gamma$  and  $\mu$  are all functions of the pressure  $p$  determined by the properties of the gas and oil. The pertinent rock characteristics enter through  $\kappa$  the ratio of the gas to oil permeability as expressed as a function of  $S$ . The solution of Eq. (10) will show how the current oil saturation  $S$  in the reservoir decline with falling pressure. It will also give the oil ratio  $R$  at the corresponding period. The associated total oil recoveries per acre-foot of product in a reservoir at any stage of depletion will be found by

$$N_p = 7758.4 \phi \left( \frac{S_m}{B} - \frac{S}{B} \right) \quad (12)$$

Solutions of Eq. (10) give the typical performance relationship of reservoir pressure and gas-oil ratio versus cumulative production as is observed in actual producing fields. By its construction in which local well bore effect are ignored it does not provide for any rate sensitivity of the recoveries.

Except for the mechanism of under saturated reservoir oil expansion during gas drive are the most inefficient producing systems. This is not because of the lack of efficient solution gas energy but rather because of the internal bypassing of the gas as its saturation is built up near a wellbore escape from the reservoir at high gas-oil ratio and little displacement efficiency. The remaining oil viscosity at the pressure decline and the initial gas-oil ratio added aggregate effect limit the cumulative recovery are 10-30% of the initial oil in place decreasing generally as the initial gas-oil ratio decreases or as the oil viscosity increases.

Solution gas drive recovery has been the dominant producing mechanism in many of the fields developed in the United States in the mid-continent area, West Texas and California. In recent years appreciation of the low efficiency of this drive has led to the application of fluid injection operation, limitation of the rate of production to a rate facilitating initial water drive or gravity segregation among the reservoir fluids, the recovery mechanism.

C i y d i n a g e d r e C s a p s l i n g a n  
l e c t a n a d d i t n l c o m p n o e n g y f  
l d p l a e m n t t s p l e m t t h a t o f o l u t o n  
g { e e P r o l e u x i c o l o g y } I f a m a y l p p e n  
u d h g h p r d u c t i n r t a n d p e s i r d i f f e r e n  
i a l i f s g a s i s p e m i t t e d t o b r k n t o t h o i l  
z o n e a n d t h e l i t o n g a s f l w t r e a m t w i l l  
b e d i p a t e d a p p l y a n d w i l l r e u s t i r a t h r  
l m i d i r e d l e o e r n e I t s e f f e t w i l l b e  
m i t t t h a t i d p e r d g a n j e t n d i c e t l y  
t h t } I f h e e t h e p r e r g r a d i e n t  
n i f r e r v r e r s i r t e d a n t t o v e r  
b i t h g a n v d f f i a l b e t w e t h g a s a n d  
o l t h g a c p w i l l b p r e e d a e g e g a t e d  
d g p i t n t h e l z n

S m p l d w n d d r n a g e b y g r v i t y f l m a  
r t l e f m n f p r m d u m w i l l l e a d t o  
l w r d u l l a t u r t a d h g n o v e r s  
i m i d n i v b t h e g r m a b l i t y w i t a b l i t y a n d  
a p p l a y p u e c h a t r i t i f i l e r c k I n  
a t l e r r c w i t h r w i t h t g a c p s i t i  
g l l y n i f a b l e t o m i l a t e p r e g r i v  
d a r g b a t h e c r e p o n d i n g r a t e s o f p r  
d u t o w i l l b e t l w f o r m a x i m u m e c o n o m  
r t r n T h h e i d w n w a d f l o w a p a r t y o f t h e  
k w i l l b f u t h e e t c s d b y t h d e c e s i n g  
p m a b l i t i f t h p u e d l n e a n d t h  
l t g a e v l d

I p a t w h t h p p e p a r t f e r v r  
t p n a n g a s p t h m p i n e n e g y o f  
t h g a s p e r m i t t e d p l m i t h a t o f t h e  
g t y h e d a t p d e a t f w i t h a w ) a t  
n m f l T h e g a a p a l o e r v a s a u g e  
h m b t r i d t h p r e r d b a n d h e n e  
l e n t h a t e f g l i n w i t h t h o l z n e  
d t h a t e d f i e t i f d e d l p m a b l i  
t v n d m d l i n v

T h e d p l c m t i l l i n e o f t h e p a d i  
n t h u d l i m i l z n d d d l r i  
t m y b n f r e d f r m E i { 8 } T h  
g r i d r h m h i m a w h o l e l k e w s e  
f i d b t h i f i d p l c m e n t p a c e s  
d b m l e f f i e n t a t h l u e n e r s e T o  
t h h g h y p t i l f t h g r a v i t y  
d g m h a m n s c p e r s h a l  
a m i l m a d b w e e t h e b e n f i a l u e f  
t h d g p r i t g e a p t p p t i t h e  
d e a d l i f d w n f n k p d i o n a n d t h e  
m i l d i t r o r i n t h d p l a e m e t e f f i

W h t a b a l e b e d t h g s p w i l l  
p p t p a d d n d a a p t n w t h a  
t t l h p g l t a t t e t n  
U d f b l e t i o n f g r t y d a g  
p e t t e p w a d b n y f c n t h g a  
l e t t h t h i l l m t h d w n  
f l a k p g d t a n d t h g w i l l m g a t  
p r i t t h g p w h l t h l m g  
d w a d s h o n t a r n g s m g r i n w i l l  
l a m e t g i t h r n p r a w h o l e  
a w i l l a h g h l i f i l t a t n a n d p e  
m i l l i n t h i n f n f n h t h e e o  
i l l g p t l p a e n i d t t h f r m  
i f e p l y r p w i t h b q t b

h a i r e e n t a l l y s i m i l a r t t h a t o f a p r i m a r y g a s  
c a p

T h e p r e u r e i n g r a v i t y d r a n a g e d r e s i n w h i c h  
e f f e t t e g r e g a t i n b e t w e n t h e g a a n d o l m  
a c h e d w i l l d e c l i n e l o w l y P r o d u c t i o n r a t e s a n d  
a p a r t y w i l l h o l d r a t h r t e a d y e x c e p t t h a t u p  
t r e t u r e w e l l s w i l l b e u c e l y h t i n a t h e r  
p r d u i n g l e v e l a r e r e a c h d b y t h e e p a n d i n g g a s  
c a p T h e g a u l r a n s w i l l f o l l o w t h e t r e n d n t t h e  
l i t r a t i f d o w n w r d g a c o m i n g i n o t p e r  
m i t d n d t h e o l v e d l u t i o n g a s i s a l l o w e d t  
m g r a t i n t o t h e g a s a p

T p r o m t e t h e g e n e r a l b e n e f i t s f m a n t e a n c e  
f p r e u e a d p r o d u c t i n c a p a c i t y p a t r o a l o f  
t h e g a p r d e d n g r a n d y d a n a g e r e r o i r m  
f i e n r e t u r n e d t o t h e r e r v o r t h r o u g h i n j e c t i o n  
w e l l s c m p l e t e d i n t h e g a c a p I f e n o u g h m m  
i n j e c t e d i r p l a m t h e r e r v i r w i t h d r a w a l s f u l l y  
a d p r e n t a n y p e u r e d e c l i n e t h m a x i m u m  
p e t a l f g r a n d y d a n a g e a n l e a h e v d  
m v i d e d i t a n o t n u l l f i e d b y e x e i m p r o d u c t i o n  
r a t e s a n d g a b r e a k t h o u h i n a n y c a s t h h i g h e r  
p r e s r e l e s m w h i c h t h e r e r v o i r d e p l e t e d  
w i l l m a t e t h a t w e m r e i d u a l r e r v o i r o i d o  
r e m a n u n d p l e d w i l l h a e h i g h e r h r n k a g a n d  
w i l l r e p r t e l e n e c r e d s t o c k t a n k o l t h a n  
i f t h p e u h a d n t b e e n m a i n t a i n e d

I t p r e f e r a b l e t h a t t h g r a n d y d a n a g e m e c h a  
n a m w h r p o t t i l l a v i f f e b e a l l o w e d t o  
f t i n t h e u g h u t a e e r r o r a p r o d u c i n g l i f e  
B u t e w h e n t h i s n o t f e a s i b l e g a s t y d r a i n a g  
m y t i l l e r v e p r i n g t h e e c o n o m c l i f b y  
r t r a n g t h l w r p a r t o f t h e o i l z o n e f r i t  
a p d d e p l e t i l y l u n g a d i T h e l n  
p e r i n g s e t t l e d p d e t n o f o l d f i e l d w h c h  
h i l t t h e r p e s u r a n d e s e r v o r g a s f i e  
f i t t h e m r g e n o f g a n y d r a n a g e a s a  
e x d u a l u r e f n e g y f r b i n g n g t h o i l n t o  
t h w i l l b r

T h m i q u e m e n t f o r t h e e f f e t v e d e e l o p  
m e n t f t h g t y d a n g e m e c h n i m a r e h i g h  
i n t a c t u a l r e l f l o n g o f c o l u m n a d g o o d  
t a l p m e b a l t y o m b l i t y W h e n t h e a r e  
p e n t a d f i l a d a g e r a k m f t h e m r e  
e a h g h a s 70-80% o f t h e o r g a l o i c o n  
t i c t e a h e v e d P p r i n a t e l y l o w e r r e  
c e s w i l l b e h t a d w h n g r v i t y d i a g e  
m e l y p p l e m t s t o t h e l u n g a s d e m c h a  
n m

C n d r a g o f t e a d e d b y g s i n j u n a t  
t h t u r l c t h s p l a y d n e s p e c i a l l y i n  
p a t a t o l t h p r o d u c t i o n f m a n o f t h e o i l  
r n E t n V e n e z l A m b e o l t g e  
f i l d n W e i T a a n d i n t h C u l f C a t h a  
l f i t d f m g a n y d a n a g S e r a l f t h  
m a j f i e l d I r a a l a p p o t e r a t e w i t h  
g f n t g r t y g g i o n

R e s e r v o i r e n g i n e e r i n g a n a l y s i s T h p m r v  
t r i g p o n t f t h e n a l y i r p r e d i c t i o n o f t h e  
p f m a n e o f n o s e r v o i r i s i t s g e o l o g i c a l  
t u t e n d n o a m e t T h s i f m a t i n a n  
o l y b a t s a t l y o b s a n d f r m w e l l d i l l e d  
w t h t h e a a l n h e f t h e r v o i t m  
m e d i t y G e l g s l e c t r i c a l d a d i o

a tive logs and the study of cores of the productive rock itself provide the basic data. These plus determination of the properties of the oil and gas may suffice to determine the total initial oil and gas contents of the reservoir by applying volumetric Eq. (1).

The real reservoir secrets unfold after the reservoir is placed on production and observations are made on its performance—the history of its production of oil, gas and water of its pressure and the distribution of these among the various producing wells. These data combined through the material balance Eq. (2) may give further check on the initial fluid contents as well as indications of the relative roles being played by the various producing mechanisms.

Quite often at least two or all major types of producing mechanism will contribute appreciably to the composite reservoir behavior and its analysis will require setting up equations for combination drive. Partial water drives actually occur more frequently than complete water drive. As previously indicated, gravity drainage usually supplements the solution gas drive process at least to some extent. Even in water drives, gravity segregation may be of benefit in minimizing channeling and water coning effects and thus improving the overall sweep efficiency.

The ultimate recoveries are determined by the magnitude of the average residual oil saturation when production is terminated.

**Recent developments.** Injection of gas or water to supplement the native energy and oil displacement potential of the reservoir in its original state have become established practice. Such fluid injection operations are now generally undertaken early in the producing life of the reservoir and as soon as it is determined that otherwise the recovery will be limited to the inefficient levels of solution gas drive or reservoir liquid expansion. For the older field, which were substantially depleted before the desirability of pressure maintenance was appreciated, secondary recovery installation have often been made in the form of gas repressuring or water flooding.

The ultimate limitation of oil recovery is presently established methods lies in the fact that the fluids—gas or water—which serve as the displacing phase are immiscible with the oil. Their surface of contact are therefore well defined interfaces. Because of the tremendous interfacial area thus distributed throughout the microscopic pores of the reservoir rock, the capillary forces opposing the large total capillary force and energies. Except for their beneficial action in inducing imbibition of water in water wet systems, the capillary forces serve resistance to multiphase flow at all saturations and tend to break up any flowing phase into a discontinuous and immobile distribution. As soon as saturation falls to critical limit. When the latter state is reached the capillary forces hold the residual oil unrecoverable in spite of continued passage of immiscible displacing

fluids such as gas or water. The interaction are empirically expressed by the relative permeability saturation relation hip.

If the oil were displaced by a miscible fluid the interfacial and capillary force would be eliminated and local displacement efficiencies approaching 100% would result. This principle has long been applied in cycling gas condensate reservoirs. Here dry liquid trapped gas is injected into the formation to displace the condensate contained in the reservoir gas and at the same time prevent decline in pressure and retrograde condensation and loss of its liquid content. Both gases are mutually miscible and the displacement proceeds without interface formation and capillary force.

In the case of an oil reservoir displaced by a miscible liquid such as the liquefied petroleum gases—propane and butane—would achieve similar results. However to circumvent the economic burden of refilling the whole oil reservoir with the valuable liquid product, only a relatively small buffer zone or slug of the latter is used—up to 10% of hydrocarbon pore volume—and it in turn is displaced by gas. At pressures of the order of 3500 psi or greater, natural gas will always be miscible with the intermediate hydrocarbon or liquefied petroleum gases at reservoir temperature. Thus a continuous phase transition is developed without the interface and capillary force from the reservoir oil to the miscible slug and to the final gas displacement phase. Field tests of this method of oil displacement and related modifications are now underway.

A quite different type of technique for improving oil recovery is that of in situ combustion. Though suggested many years ago, it has been studied and developed on the basis of modern reservoir engineering principles only recently. It appears to have special promise in application to heavy oil reservoirs where because of high reservoir viscosity and very unfavorable mobility ratios for displacement by gas or water, the latter on ultimate recovery method are of low and often noncommercial efficiency.

In essence, in situ combustion is an investigated and tested technique on the injection of air into the production formation to maintain burning of the oil in place—at temperatures of the order of 600°F—and provide a flow of heat ahead of the combustion front with the oil and gas in the reservoir and the recovery and producing well productivity. The burning of the oil generates a hot product and vaporized oil gas. The lighter with the bank of condensed water appears in a composite gas and water drive moving toward the producing well with the mobility front. In addition, the air heat also raises the temperature of the rock and fluid ahead of the combustion front although the rapid temperature rise at the temperature was tend to delay the movement in well productivity until the fire front reaches the producing well. The air front is immediately ahead of the burning front.

# Petroleum secondary recovery

po t f h a v y l r e d u l r k e d t h e r  
a f l o t h f i l o m b u t i o n r a t o A s a r e  
h t h r c k t h u h w h h t h e f e p s l e f t  
e e t l l y l a n w i t h l l t l d p l a c d r b r n d  
o t A b o t 1 5 c f t h e i l i l m a y b n  
m d n t h m a e r o m e 8 5 c t h u b e n g i n  
p l e r c r b l n t h e r k t r a e b d b y t h e  
f r l l a e t h e h e a i t e m p o n n t f t h i l e  
u e d f i l t r i t e d e n c y f r i m p o e m n t  
t h e g t v f t h l r c o e d b y n t m  
b u t

The f i e m y b e t r t e d b y h e t s r h e t n  
p r o c e d l p e d j e t o w l l s b y p n  
t a e o u m b t n o f t h e r r v r c r u d e u l t n g  
f r m t h x t h r m o d t d b r p t f  
t h y g e n t h t e m T h p e a t a e  
c r r e d n a p a t t r d t b u t n f i j c t i o n d  
p o d u g w e l l m i a r t o t h u e d n w i r  
B o n d g

C o m m e l c s f i t c m b t n r e  
q e r l t l y h h p t y n d l i t r t o n  
a t h l d t h e r a t o f i j t o t o l p d c d  
d w n t c m e l l i t s a l s e e r y t  
d l p g h g p m a b l i t h g h t h f r  
m t o t p e m t f i t h g h f w f a d  
m b t g e t t n t h e b u r n i n g T m s  
m e t h e e f f e c t f h e t l e s t h e t p a d b o i t m  
b o d g t t t h e r e r v r b e d m u t b e o f p  
p r e c a b l t h e s A s l l d p l m e t p  
e u f m t y o f t h e p d u g c t n w i l l  
f l t a h e v h i h w p e f f n y H w e  
t h a p d d e v f i t h e b n g f t t h r g h a  
l i m i t e d e b y g r i y e r g a t n o f t h a n d  
g o b y p r m b l t y h n l w l l  
t h t r m f t h e d c t h r m l f i t t o  
t h l m e t h e p d i g w e l l w h h  
l d t h e w t t h r h i g h t y d l w  
m b l t y t i l a t t h e y l f f t h e e r

A m b f f i e l d t l h f i r m e d t h b a  
f b l t f r y g n t u o m b t l  
r v A t h e s t h B l d F l d n k  
C o t C a l f m e 5 0 c m f t h  
1 3 d g e e A P I l i p l t h e t t r e w e  
e d w t h 1 8 m t h f i r j t n w a s  
t i d

T h m p m n t l c o v r y p o  
d d h p t l y t h m j r d  
l p m t w h h a l d y p p e t h e m e  
g f e c m f b l t y l t t b e p t d  
t h t t l y l l t h d t h e l d m t h d b  
m t l l m p e d b t e d h b t  
t h t l l m e l a d p w f l t h n q w i l l  
b e b g h t l i g h t t h e f e c r  
f e e g p f t e d

S O i l D C S F I E L D E X P L O I T A T I O N O I L A D  
T R C O I L B G A S W E L L S P E T R O L E U  
D R Y R E C Y [ x M ]  
B b l g p h M M k t T h F l u f H m g  
F l d t h g h P M d 1 9 1 6 M M  
k t P h I P c p l f O I P d t 1 9 4 9  
S J P s o O I R r t E g r i g 2 d d  
1 9 1 8

The p r e c e o f r e m a i n i n g i l f m t s n a t i e r e r  
o r b y t h m f u p p l m e n t a l e e r g e s a f t e r t h e  
n t r a l e r g i s c a n g i l p r o d c t i l a e l e e n  
d p l e t e d P e t r l e m c d a j r e c e r v m n t r a t  
w t h p i m r y r c e r y w h c h i t h e i l p r o d u c t i n  
r s l t g f r m n d g n o u r e r v r e n e g e A d  
a c n g p r i c p l s o f t e c h n l o g y n d e e r a t i  
d e m a n d t h n t u r a l e n g y b e u p p l e m e t d o n  
a f t e r d c r y o f a e e r v r t h e r e f e r t d a y  
b e t p r a c t c s c o m b i e t h e p r i m a r y a d e o n d a r y  
r e c e r y p r d s H w e t l e e a r e m a n y r e e r  
w h h a c b e n d e p l e t e d w i t h u t b e n f i f  
u p p l m e t l e r y a d n t l m n a r r w t e  
s e c n d r y e c o m y a p p l i s t t h e f u t h e d e l o p  
m n t f i t h e d e p l e t e d e r v i

S c d r y r e c o e y w a f i r t p a t c e d t h  
l d e r n d s h a l l o w e r p t l u m r e s e r v s o f t h  
A p p a l a c h i n r g o n I t h s i c s p r e a d t a l l i l  
p d c n g r e g i o n s o f t h w o r l d n d h a d u l l e d  
t h p d c n g l f f m i l f i l d W h n c m  
b i e d w i t h p r i m r y r c e r y t i p p l i d t d e p  
r e s e r v r W h e p r a c t c e d n d p l e t e d e r r  
t i s g e r e l l y l m t d b y e c o n m i c f a t r s t o r e e  
i s h l l o w r t h n 3 0 0 0 f t T i l i l p o d c t i o  
t h U n e d S t a t s b y d r y r e c o r y m e t h d s  
n 1 9 5 4 s o m p l e d b y t h e l e t t t O l C o m p a t  
C o m m s n w a p p o m a t l y 4 8 0 0 0 0 0 0 b b l

E n e r g y s u p p l e m e n t a n d w e l l p a t t e r n s E n r g y  
p p l m n t d b y i t r d t i f e t h e g s o  
w t e u d e p r i n t o t h e r e r v r t h e e f  
g a s m m n l y k o w n s g a d r i e r g a r e p m  
g t h e o f w t e a w t e f l d g T h  
j e c t e d f l u i d d s t h e i l m a i n g n t h e r  
t t h t y f p o d c t i o n w e l l f m w h n e e  
t a n b e l f t d t h r f i c a d l o t k e u p  
t h e p e w i t h n t h e e s r v o r p e s l y o c p i e d  
b y t h l

T w t y p e f w e l l n j e c t o w e l l a n d p d u  
t w e l l q u e d f o s e o d y o r y  
o p r t o S t n d d p a t t r s h a e e o l d f o t h e  
a n g m e n t f t h e w e l l s L o a t i g w e l l p t  
t r n p e m t s e e d l p m e t f g i n l n d  
a n d n e s t h e m a m u m p e t r i o n l  
j e t d f i d t a l l p t f t h e r e r v i l t h e  
l y h i t r y f d a r e c o e y a g l e n j  
t w e l l w d e d b y a l g m b e r  
p d t n w l l T h p t t k o w s c h  
d e t l l u e d f r g s j c t i p e r a t  
A n t h p t t n t h l e d a l e f i j  
t u w e l l f f e t h y l e o f p d t n w l l

T h e m t e m m w l l p t t t h e f i e s p  
S q a e t w k f j c t i w l l d p d t i  
w e l l t f l k t h a h j t n w e l l t t l  
t e f q a e c s t g f f u p d t  
w e l l d e c h p d c t m w l l a t t h e c t  
q a r e c t g f f j t i n w e l l A t h  
t d d p t t t h n s p t w h h  
f j e c t u w e l l l o a t e d a t t h r t f h  
g w t h p d t w l l t h t f  
h e g B e h a g t h l o f j t  
p o d t w l l t h e e p t p a t t e

and the fluid content of the porous rock itself provide the basic data. These plus determination of the properties of the oil and gas, make it possible to determine the initial oil and gas content of the reservoir by applying volumetric Eq. (1).

The real reservoir is not uniform after the reservoir is placed on production and because it is made on performance—the history of its production of oil and gas and water is a pressure and the distribution of these among the various producing wells. These data as combined through the material balance Eq. (2) make it possible to check on the initial fluid content as well as indicate the relative roles being played by the various producing mechanisms.

Quite often at least two or all major types of producing mechanism will contribute appreciably to the composite reservoir behavior and analysis will require fitting up equal and/or combining the data. Part I was derived actually occurs more frequently than complete water drive. A previous analysis indicated that drainage is still important in the later stages of production and at least to some extent. Even in water drive gravity segregation may be of importance in forming channels and water coning effect and thus improving the overall well efficiency.

The ultimate recovery is determined by the magnitude of the secondary residual oil saturation when production is terminated.

**Recent developments.** Injection of gas or water to supplement the natural energy and oil displacement potential of the reservoir in its original state has become established practice. Such field injection operations are now generally undertaken early in the producing life of the reservoir and as soon as it is determined that otherwise the recovery will be limited to the inefficient level of solution-gas drive or reservoir liquid expansion. For the older field which were substantially depleted before the desirability of pressure maintenance was appreciated, secondary recovery installation has often been made in the form of gas reinjection or water flooding.

The ultimate limitation of oil recovery by present established method lies in the fact that the fluid—gas or water—which enters the displacement phase are in contact with the oil. The surfaces of contact are therefore well defined in the faces. Because of the tremendous interfacial area that is contacted through the microscopic pores of the reservoir rock, these interfacial energy requirements are so great that capillary forces and energy. Extent of the reservoir fluid acts in the induction mechanism of water in water wet reservoirs, the capillary forces offer resistance to imbibition of fluid at all saturations and tend to break up any fluid phase as a displacement front falls to critical limits. When the latter state is reached, the capillary forces hold the residual oil unrecoverable in spite of continued pressure increase and capillary displacement.

fluid such as gas or water. These in turn are empirically extended to the plane potential by a constant factor.

If the oil were displaced by a miscible fluid, no interfacial and capillary forces would be eliminated and total displacement efficiency approaches 100% would result. The principle has been applied in cycling gas-condensate reservoirs. Here the liquid condensed gas is injected into the formation to displace the condensate-bearing reservoir gas and at the same time prevent decrease in reservoir and retrograde condensation and loss of liquid content. Both gas and oil are mutually miscible and the displacement proceeds with uniform face formation and capillary forces.

In the case of an oil reservoir displacement by a miscible liquid such as the liquid petroleum gas—propane and butane—would achieve similar results. However, to circumvent the economic burden of reilling, the whole oil reservoir with the residual liquid produced as a relatively small buffer zone or slug of the latter is used—until 100% of the drainage pore volume and is in turn displaced by gas. At pressures of 1000 to 1500 psi or greater, natural gas will also be miscible with the intermediate hydrocarbon liquids and the reservoir gas at reservoir temperatures. Thus a continuous phase transition is developed with the interfaces and capillary forces in the reservoir oil to the residual liquid and to the final residual displacement phase. Field tests of this method of oil displacement and related modifications are underway.

A qualified seven types of techniques for improving recovery—that of miscible contact in the reservoir—has been studied and developed on the basis of modern reservoir engineering principles and recent laboratory and field special projects in application to the oil reservoir where because of high reservoir oil content and reservoirs are able to build reservoir displacement of gas or water the latter conventional recovery methods are of low and often noncommercial efficiency.

In essence, in miscible contact, the reservoir is and tested to date consists of the injection of a fluid that produces a miscible contact with the oil in the plume at temperatures of the order of 600°F—and produced a flow of heat ahead of the combustion zone to lower the oil and increases the reservoir and produced well productivity. The reservoir is then heated to the point of contact and applied oil contact. The effect is with the bulk of the injected water at a temperature of the reservoir and fluid ahead of the production well with the imbibition front added to the effect of the heat and a high temperature in the rock and fluid ahead of the imbibition front, although the rapid attenuation of the temperature will tend to delay the improvement in well productivity until the fire front reaches the produced well. The effect is to produce a high rate of displacement of the reservoir and the heat is de-

inject n r te Con qu ntlv tr atm nt f r rem al  
f ba teria w ll sten be nec xcy flughly c =  
w r m tal bea d d

The e l al ays the po bilty that hem c l  
inte act n w ll occ r betwe n on onta ned n  
th nje ted water and those present in the nat e  
es r water r e e r s mter ls Inje ted  
w r may al pduc a ch ng in the t ture of  
e e r r ly mate l with a r s stant reduction  
fl w e pa ity

I the ject o fga p m plattent n is paid  
t the r mo al f mate ial that mght cond n  
th the re e r v produce e r r o e c t on  
p r t g e q p m nt r y eld o dat on with the  
re e r r

Experimental developments Adva c n te h  
lgy f nti ed t eek mean f m p v ing  
e d r r co r y P r n pal am ng th e eff t  
h s h r m tal bea d d n p l t l v the  
ap l l y f rce that a ope at v n r tan ng  
re du lo l Th n b acc m pl hed in the labo  
r t y b y p o c e k w a m r b l d p l c o m  
t n t h r o y t s f p l g the r r o l  
b y fl d th h h n w ll m t ompl t l v F r  
xample o mght n y t a o l e t h but a  
t l e r v t had be m pl tely d l ed  
n d h g l t th r l e B c u i n r o n  
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q u i f th p r t e h n g e h b u g  
p e n d l n g l u f l e t f l l w d l y wate  
g a the h t of the o l n t be g h t h t  
t l l m f l w l th f l l w n g w a t o g a s  
l l w l th th i l h h t i repl Ale hol  
a h t e r t but l al h l l e d e e p r d  
W th g i j t i o m ble l u g r e n b  
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4000 p b add ng e t a n g s m p n t s to  
th n j t n t a m

An th m th d f r ed cing ap l l a r y f e r  
th d d t n f f t m a t i a l t a w t r  
flood m i g o l m h w l d m e  
g e with d i m t Th p r i p l d ad an  
t g f n g l t t t h t h r a d r h d  
n the r v o k Th e r n t e o i  
n l m a n b l d f r c t u p l l y d e b n  
ng p l c n g the f t e x O d p p d  
d d t e w a t e f l o d n g o l b l g h  
b o d d

Other p m e t i m thod are th th r m a l n l  
t u m b u t n m th d A f e o c m b u s t i n  
p o c e t r t e d n t e v e r t a t n y e t i n  
e f l l t h n t e d t o d t o f g t a  
g a n g n r m t a l t p p o t m b t n  
t h m l t w d r e a t t u g h t h e r r o i  
t w d th p r o d u t i o n w l l A the m l u t i o n  
w m e x f r e d p r i t h i l s d t i l l d d  
d i f r w d p i f i t h l t b r n e d t p o d e  
t h h t e c y l e t g the m b t

M h l d o a t r y r e a h h been done n  
th e p p o u n d w r m thod f e c o n d r y e

c e r y n d n m e r o u s f e l d t e t s a r e n o w u n d e r  
w a t o e x a m n e a l l o f t h e m e t h o d N o n e f l l e m  
a n b e a i d t o h m r a c t e d t h e i g e o f t e c h n o l o g y  
w h e r e t h e r f l e t i e u e c a n b e p r e d i t d w h e r e  
t h f a c t o r c n t o l l n g t h e e c o n o m i c s c a n t d  
l i n e t d

Se OIL AND GAS FIELD EXPLOITATION I F T R O L U M R E S E R V O I R E N G I N E E R I N G [ J C C ]

B b l a p h y A m e r i c a n P e t r o l e u m I n t i t u t e  
S e c o d a r y R e c o v e r y o f O i l i n t h e U n i t d S t a t e s  
1950 J C C a s h u n J r F u n d a m e n t a l s o f R e s r  
t E g i e r i n g 193 M M u k a t, P h y s c a l  
P r i n c i p l s o f O i l P r o d u c t i o n 1949 L C U r e n  
P e t r o l e u m P r o d u c t i o n E n g i n e e r i n g O i l F i e l d D e  
t l o p m e n t 4 t h e d 1956

## Petrology

The study of r c k the r c u r r e n e c m p n i o n  
a n d o g i n P e t r o l o g y i s c o n c e r n e d p r i m a r i l y  
w t h t h e d e t e r m i n a t i o n o f c l a s s f a t t n o f  
n k w h e r e a s p t o l g d a l f r m a r i l y w t h r o c k  
f e x t u r e a p r t g e n e A p e t r o l o g c a l d e c i p  
t i n l d e d e f i n i t i o n o f t h e u n i t i n w h i c h t h e  
k c e r r i s t i c a n d t r e t u r e t u m i n e r a l  
o g y a n d c h e m i c a l c o m p o s i t i o n a n d c o n c e n t r a t i o n s  
r e a d n t o r i n l n a r e t i d e e h w e r  
p r o l o g h m t e m p h a z t h e s t u d y o f o c k  
i n t h e f i l d a n d h a n d s p e m e w t h t r e  
c u e t o t h m i c r o s c o p e F r a d i c u m o f  
m n e l i d e n t i f i c a t i o n p e t g r a p h i c a l i v i a n d  
t h e c l f a t n t o c k s e e M I N E R A L O G Y P E  
T R O G R A P H Y R O C K

Igneous rocks Extr u e ( e f f i u ) i g e o u  
r h r a c h t f m t h r t h r g l f i s r e o f  
c o n d e b l l n e r e t e t ( f i s u m u p t n ) o  
t h r u h p p l k h n n e l w a s a r u n d w h h o l  
c a n e a r b u t l E x t r u a m a l m a y f l w o u t  
r l t i h q u e t l y a l i a o m m a y b e p l o d a s  
p r l t e m a t i l F u r e p t n s a r e g e n e  
a l l q t d p e t e d m l o g p e r o d o f t i m e  
t h l d p t h i c k p l a s t r m s f e o n d e b l e m t e n t  
c o n t n h f l y o f b a t l n t h r i n w e s t e r n  
U n i t d S t a t t h C o l u m b a R r P l a t e a u b l t n  
t h s w y m b a s a 80000 m i n l d h O r e g n  
a n d W h g t m f t l a r e s h a a n a g g r  
g a t e t h k n 15000 f t S e l a c a n o

Vol a c t r u a a r e o f a v a e t y o f t y p e ( T b l 1 ) I a f l o w s m a y b e c h a t e r i z e d b y a  
m t h o r y p u f e t h p o m e n t f l o w t r c  
( p a h o h ) o b y a j u n b l e d b l k y s r f a  
( a ) F l w m m o l y h o w c o l m r j o n t n g  
h t h l a b e n p d d b y c n t r a t i o n u p n  
r t l l a z A l v a t g u o l d f i e f i r t a l o m  
t u p p u f a a g i t h a r a n d a l o n g t  
b t o m e n t z w t h o l r o c k l y n g c n t r l  
t e a m w h h s t l l f i q d f l o w n g n a t n l o f  
m w n c t r u t n W t h u f f i t l o p e t h  
t e a m d i a w y l a i g e a e r n p a a g w a y  
l l n a t i y r e s g e t t l y n n i n t y  
d u r a t n p r i o d b e t w e m e u p t a n d q a t  
t e f g l y u d o k a n d s l d f d f g m e n t  
x p e l l e d T h m m p o r t a t f a c t r f l u g

four spot pattern is obtained. Nine spot patterns are five spot patterns with additional injection wells added at the midpoints of the sides of each injection well square.

The spacing between injection well and production wells will depend upon local physical conditions of the petroleum reservoir and upon economic factor. The resulting well densities will range generally from one well per acre to one well per 40 acres. Spacing economics is controlled by the amount of gas or water that can be injected into or produced from a single well. The prediction of the amount of fluid which an injection well will handle is therefore one of the most critical technical points in planning a secondary recovery project. This amount of fluid will depend upon factors such as the permeability of the reservoir rock, the viscosity of the reservoir oil, the fraction of the reservoir pore space that is filled with oil, the thickness of the reservoir formation, the reservoir pressure and the available surface pressure.

**Factors of effectivity.** The efficiency of a secondary recovery operation is determined by the effectiveness with which the injected fluid displaces oil from that part of the reservoir which it invades and the degree to which the injected fluid can be made to invade all parts of the reservoir.

**Displacement and retention factors.** Even under the most favorable conditions of fluid in a reservoir it is not possible to replace all the oil in a given element of reservoir rock. The rock contains a complex and interconnecting assemblage of small channels which are not uniform in shape or in size. Hence it is possible for the invading fluid to bypass and trap some of the oil contained in channels or oil globules. This residual oil is held in place by the strong capillary force that are operative. On the basis of its oil retention properties a reservoir rock may be classified as either oil wet or water wet. In the former the residual oil may be held as a film or as filling the most minute pore spaces. In the latter the residual oil may be held as trapped globules or islands within the larger pore spaces.

**Fluid segregation problems.** Because oil is less dense than water and more dense than gas, there may be a segregation of injected water to the bottom part of the reservoir or of injected gas to the top part. In either case the injected fluid will advance toward the production well through only part of the reservoir. Complete entry of the invading fluid to all parts then is not possible without production of large amounts of injected fluid from the production well, a procedure which is necessarily costly. The possibility of encountering fluid segregation may lead to the delicate locating of wells so that injection of gas is to the top of a reservoir structure or injection of water to the bottom, thus making use of the segregation tendencies. This cannot be done however in flat thin reservoirs.

Reservoir rock properties are seldom uniform and in particular the rock may vary in its perme-

ability that in its capacity to conduct fluid. The injected fluid will take the path of least resistance and by the time it has invaded the higher permeability channels completely, it will have invaded the lower permeability channels only partially. If the permeability channel are efficiently stratified, special well completion technique can be used to promote uniform fluid invasion.

If the resistance to flow is higher for the oil in the reservoir than for the invading fluid, the invading fluid will reach the production well by the most direct flow path. As a result, injected fluid will reach the production well before all of the pattern area has been invaded. The area of a pattern which has been invaded by the time the invading fluid breaks into the production well is termed the areal coverage of the pattern.

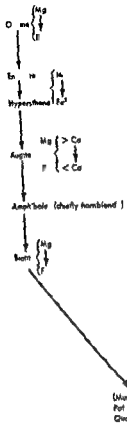
**Mobility ratio and area extent.** The ratio of flow resistance between injected fluid and reservoir oil is known as the mobility ratio. With a mobility ratio of unity, the areal coverage for the five spot pattern is 123% for the eleven spot and four spot is 143%. Each pattern has a characteristic coverage for each mobility ratio. When the flow resistance of the reservoir oil is extremely low, the coverage will approach unity for any type of pattern.

As the flow resistance of the reservoir oil increases in comparison to that of the invading fluid, the achieved areal coverage will decrease. For this reason, injected gas generally produces a smaller areal coverage than injected water. However, because of the more favorable economic factor for handling gas, the injection of gas can be continued for long periods of time after gas arrives at the production wells. After water arrives at the production well, water injection generally can be continued only until the ratio of water-oiloline reaches 1:100 or less.

**Oil recovery and residue.** The percentage of oil recovered by the secondary method will be a composite result of the effect that has been noted, namely, of the geometrical arrangement of pore and the capillary force of the gravity separation of the heterogeneous nature of the reservoir and of the areal coverage that can be achieved. Under the most favorable circumstances, one may expect residual oil following secondary recovery to be as low as 15-20% of the pore space. With some of the effective factors operative to a disadvantage, residual oil following secondary recovery may be as high as 50% of the pore space. The residual oil will be highest where rock has a complex porous structure where the reservoir oil is quite viscous or where there are wide variations in reservoir permeability.

**Hazards from fluid contamination.** In water flooding, considerable attention must be given to the purity of injected water. The reservoir rock will act as a filter to remove suspended materials, the well bore and clog the formation. Hence, no suspended material can be permitted. Even a little salt will filter in, make rock formation and reduce the

DISCONTINUOUS REACTION SERIES



CONTINUOUS REACTION SERIES



(Muscovite) Potash feldspar Quartz

Re cr f b w (m d f d)

d f f i m p t i x t r e r i m a a  
i t h e r t e o f d m i t n T h e d e l p m e t f  
m t d m t r y r o k p r e c e d t h e f l l w i g  
i g e s (1) T h a u r k a n y l d m  
f g a e d m n t p p l y o f o r g n i c a l l y  
r g n a t e d m a t l (2) B y w e a t i g t h l d r  
o c k m e e h s c a l l e m m s t e d h m c a l l y a l l  
t r e d b o t h t f r m n l d i d r h i t l  
o c k d l l d m i l (3) P a t i a r e t  
p o t e d t r m o c i l a k e u n t w d  
g l m b y t h d r e t a t m f g r a i t y w h i h  
e s f r i t l t l d d l l d w n l o p s  
14) M t r a l m d b y o l l i n g u p n o n o l u  
t d p o t e d a n d (5) D e p t a l l r e  
l i d t e d b y t h p o c e f e m u t i o n  
t a d s e s m p t i h a l i n d e r y t a l  
t r a n t l i m e s t e ) C h m a l h a n g e c e m  
p i n g l d t a t e r m l d g e t a c  
W a t h e d m a t f o s t p r t e d m y b e m e a  
d l e d m s r o c k (b u s e ) S e d m i t a  
o c k r d p o r t d e t h e r n l n d e a (c t  
t a l ) o c w t (m ) M t m a n  
a d m t t n l h o p l a n t h b m a r t  
f t h t e n t s a l l e d c o n t i n u a l h e s  
E x m p l e s f t y p e f e d m n a r y d p o t e  
l r e d T t l 5 F e t r e s t a t t l l f n d

in sedimentary rocks in addition to stratification  
at ero bedding concretions ripple marks mud  
raks and f ls See DIAGENESIS SEDIMENTA  
TION (GEOLOGY) WEATHERING PROCESSES

A formation which is the last unit of stratigraphic  
raphy is a re of rock deposited during a  
sp e c i f i c u n t o f g e o l o g i c t i m e a n d c o n t i n g e t h e r  
o f a p a r t i c u l a r r o c k t y p e r f e r a l t y p e d e  
e i t e d i n a n e d i m e n t a r y c y c l e S u c h a c y c l e i s t h e  
c h a n g i n g q u a n t i t y o f d e p o s i t s r e f l e c t i n g f r e x a m  
p l e d a n e o r e t r e a t f m a r i n e w a t e r n a j a r  
t e c l a r r e a H w e r w h i l e s n d t n e m a y b e  
d e p o s i t e d a t n e t i m e m o p l a e i n t h e d i m e n  
t a r y b a s i n l i m e s t n e m a y b e f o r m e d m u l t a n  
o u s l y l e w h e e S u h l a t r l v a r i a t i o n i n a f r m a  
t o i e f e r r e d t a f a c i e s S e e C Y C L O T H E M  
F A C I E S (GEOLOGY) STRATIGRAPHY

By means of detailed studies of the fossils in a  
format on and its lithology composition structure  
and distribution the paleoecology of the area may  
be reconstructed Correlation of format on is at  
tempted chiefly on the basis of fossils with sup  
plementary data from the lithology stratigraphic  
position of the residue (in a diagenetic rocks)  
heavy detrital minerals (in clastic rocks) and in

TABLE 3 Igneous rock formation

Name		Rock types		Environment	
Ore	Basalt	Basalt, m t chyt pe	Volcanic	Deposited	Basalt
Alkali	Basalt	(1) Ol t hyt pho-	(2) Basalt, m t chyt pe	Deposited	Basalt
Tholeiitic	Basalt	(1) Ol t hyt pho-	(2) Basalt, m t chyt pe	Deposited	Basalt
Calcic	Basalt	(1) Ol t hyt pho-	(2) Basalt, m t chyt pe	Deposited	Basalt
Lopholite	Basalt	(1) Ol t hyt pho-	(2) Basalt, m t chyt pe	Deposited	Basalt
Alpine-type	Basalt	(1) Ol t hyt pho-	(2) Basalt, m t chyt pe	Deposited	Basalt
Pegmatite	Basalt	(1) Ol t hyt pho-	(2) Basalt, m t chyt pe	Deposited	Basalt
Basaltic	Basalt	(1) Ol t hyt pho-	(2) Basalt, m t chyt pe	Deposited	Basalt
Granite	Granite	Granite (some k l i q t y e a s y d r i t F l d p t h d l r o c k b o t e s	Hypabyssal	Deposited	Granite
Phyllite	Phyllite	Phyllite (some k l i q t y e a s y d r i t F l d p t h d l r o c k b o t e s	Hypabyssal	Deposited	Phyllite
Lamprophyre	Lamprophyre	Lamprophyre (some k l i q t y e a s y d r i t F l d p t h d l r o c k b o t e s	Hypabyssal	Deposited	Lamprophyre



the differences are (1) chemical composition of the magma (2) amount of gas dissolved in it (3) extent of crystallization or cooling before eruption and (4) configuration of the conduit and depth of the magma chamber See MAGMA

Intrusive igneous rocks occur in many different type of units or intrusions which are classified chiefly by their shape and structural relations to their wall rocks (Table 2) Bodies that crystallized at great depths (such as batholiths) are referred to as plutonic the consolidated under shallow cover are designated as hypabyssal See LUTON

The crystallization of the larger intrusives may result in profound alterations in the adjacent wall rocks (exomorphism) Where stocks and batholiths have invaded sedimentary rocks an aureole of contact metamorphism is developed This result from recrystallization under increased temperature and may be accompanied by chemical transformations (pyrometamorphism) produced by hydrothermal solutions generated during the latter stages of magmatic differentiation Where batholiths have been intruded into rocks which are already regionally metamorphosed the contact rocks formed are injection gneisses or migmatites See AUREOLE CONTACT

Igneous rocks make room for themselves by forceful injection (dilatance) by engulfing wall rock blocks (magmatic stoping) or by subsidence of overlying rocks The hypothesis of granitization maintains that granites result from the wholesale transformation of sedimentary or metamorphic rock layers by solutions operating through mineral replacement or by ionic emanations acting through solid diffusion See GRANITIZATION

Blocks of wall rock included in an intrusive mass are xenoliths their partial destruction by reaction may produce irregular clumps of mafic minerals called chertier In some instances such endomorphic effects are sufficiently intensive to result in modification of the composition of the magma (text) See XENOLITH

Crystallizing under equilibrium condition early magmatic minerals react with remaining fluid to yield new species (see diagram) Interruption of the sequence will yield liquid fractions richer in silicon dioxide alkali iron and water than the original magma and crystalline fractions richer in calcium and magnesium than the parent magma (magmatic differentiation)

Igneous rocks occur in clans or associations which possess characteristic trace elements and appear in specific structural provinces (Table 3) The origins of various igneous rocks are summarized in Table 4 See PETROGRAPHIC PROVINCE

Sedimentary rocks With the exception of material deposited by glaciers (till) or the consolidated form tillite sedimentary rocks how bedding or stratification This separation into generally parallel layers (beds strata) results from sorting according to grain size during deposition from

Table 1 Types of volcanic structure

Name	Characteristics
Shield	Low level, flow, formed by successive flows, cumulating around central vent
Cinder cone	Conical, steep, with a gently sloping sides composed of pyroclastic material, poorly consolidated
Spatter cone	Small, steep-sided cone with well-defined rim composed of pyroclastic material, well consolidated (glaucophane)
St. Louis	Composed of clay, red flow, and pyroclastic material, well consolidated, slightly conical profile with central vent
Cinder	Block of granitic material, highly irregular, of tephra, composed of tephra, magnesian, both
High-dom	Domical, composed of (allyl) lava growing by subsurface crystallization, composed by outflow
Cryptoclastic	Composed of highly fractured rocks, gneiss, highly fractured, of different types, of different types, of different types, of different types

Table 2 Characteristics of intrusive igneous rock masses

Name	Shape	Structure	Location
Dikes	Tubular, lined	Concordant	Flow, feed, hatched, milled, g
Sill	Tabular, lined	Concordant	Up, s, e, b, n, d, feet, k
Laccolith	Planar, doubly concave	Concordant	1-4, n, l, d, f, e, l
Volcanic neck	Pip-like	Discordant	Flow, h, d, f, e, l, d, l, rod, of, l, o
Stocks	Irregular, with walls	Crossed	Flow, h, d, f, e, l, d, l, rod, of, l, o
Batholith	Irregular, at fly, bottom, known	(1) Discordant, (2) Concordant	Flow, h, d, f, e, l, d, l, rod, of, l, o
Plutonic	Flow, h, d, f, e, l, d, l, rod, of, l, o	Flow, h, d, f, e, l, d, l, rod, of, l, o	Flow, h, d, f, e, l, d, l, rod, of, l, o



drill holes by electrical conductivity radioactivity and seismic wave velocities

**Metamorphic rocks** Metamorphism transforms rocks through combinations of the factors of heat hydrostatic pressure (load) stress (directed pressure) and solutions. Most of the changes are in

texture or mineral composition. Major changes in chemical composition are called metamorphism. The major types of metamorphism are presented in Table 6. Rocks that can serve as parent material for metamorphic derivatives include both igneous and sedimentary types and the latter commonly older.

Table 4 Synopsis of magmatic evolution

Primary magmas	Mode of origin	Common types of igneous rocks
Alkaline olivine basaltic magmas	By differentiation on a mid-plutonic crystallization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Tecchinites</li> <li>Theralites</li> <li>Lssaxites</li> <li>Shonkinites</li> <li>Pyroxenites</li> <li>Picrites</li> <li>Peridotites</li> </ul>
	By differentiation and volcanic crystallization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Mugearites</li> <li>Trachybasalts</li> <li>Olivine basalts</li> <li>Picrite basalts</li> </ul>
	By contamination in olvin reaction with granite of continental basement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Nepheline basalts</li> <li>Soda lamprophyres</li> <li>Melilitite basalts</li> </ul>
	By differentiation and modification in geosynclines	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Leucite basalts</li> <li>Biotite lamprophyres</li> </ul>
Granodioritic granite magmas	By differentiation and plutonic crystallization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Alratophyres</li> <li>Sphilites</li> </ul>
	By differentiation and volcanic crystallization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Granites</li> <li>Granodiorites</li> <li>Tonalites</li> <li>Diorites</li> <li>Syenites</li> </ul>
	By mixing with basaltic magma	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Rhyolites</li> <li>Dacites</li> <li>Andesites</li> <li>Latites</li> </ul>
	By assimilation reaction with slates limestones amphibolites etc	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Andesites</li> <li>Syenites</li> <li>Nepheline syenites</li> <li>Diorites</li> <li>Tonalites</li> </ul>
Tholeiitic magmas	By differentiation and plutonic crystallization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Granophyres</li> <li>Diorites</li> <li>Anorthositic (Bytownite)</li> <li>Gabbros</li> <li>Pyroxenites</li> <li>Peridotites</li> </ul>
	By differentiation in the alkalis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Granophyres</li> <li>Quartz diorites</li> <li>Diorites</li> <li>Olivine diorites</li> </ul>
	By differentiation and volcanic crystallization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Tholeiitic basalts</li> <li>Picrobasalts</li> </ul>
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Syenites</li> <li>Nepheline syenites</li> <li>Ijolites → Carbonatites</li> <li>Alkali rhyolites</li> <li>Trachytes</li> <li>Phonolites</li> <li>Phonolites</li> <li>Leucite phonolites</li> <li>Latites</li> <li>Trachytes</li> <li>Pegmatites</li> <li>Aplites</li> <li>Dacites</li> <li>Rhyolites</li> <li>Rhyolites</li> <li>Aldesites</li> </ul>



of planes of metamorphic intensity with the earth's surface. The  $\pi$  are defined on the appearance of a specific mineral known to reflect a major increase in the intensity of metamorphism.

The primary cause of the  $\pi$  acting during regional metamorphism is the triplism of the mountain building type. The higher temperature may result from deep burial owing to the geothermal gradient of the earth in part to concentration of radiogenic heat or in part to heat supplied by cooling magma of magma. In contact metamorphism this latter is the sole heat source. See **GEOLOGIC THERMOMETRY**.

Once formed metamorphic rocks are subject to further change through folding and crumpling of the foliation and through extensive injection of igneous material to form migmatite. [F W H]

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## Petromyzontiformes

One of two orders of Recent jawless fishes containing the lampreys. This order is also known as the Petromyzontia. They are degenerate modern representative of the plated cephalaspidomorphs of Silurian and Devonian time. Lampreys differ fundamentally from the superficially similar but remotely related order Myxinoformes or hagfishes. The latter produced and overhies a circular oral disk that bears cornified teeth and lacks enlarged barbels. The single nostril is located on top of the head before the eyes and does not penetrate the palate. There are seven pairs of pharyngeal gill pouches that open internally into a respiratory tube and externally through seven pairs of pores. The one or two dorsal fins are more or less distinct from the caudal fin, and there are two pairs of emicircular canals. Lampreys are bisexual animals that live permanently in fresh water or enter streams to breed. Eggs are deposited in gravel riffles and the young develop into blind larvae that burrow in the soft bottom and feed for several years on microscopic organisms strained from the water. At metamorphosis the oral disk and eye develop and the transformed lampreys become free swimmers.



Sea lamprey *Petromyzon marinus* (Aft) G B Good Great Britain and Ireland 1883 U.S.N.M. 62811 27)

Some species known as brook lampreys remain in streams for a few months without feeding then breed and die. Most lampreys, however, are parasitic feeding on other fishes and growing for a year or more before they breed and die. A protrusible tongue armed with horny teeth is employed to rasp an opening in the host's body from which blood is sucked. So destructive are the parasites that, after gaining recent access to the upper Great Lakes, the sea lamprey (*Petromyzon marinus*) all but exterminated the lake trout and other valuable commercial fishes.

Lampreys are classified in a single family Petromyzontidae with 1 genera and about 30 species. They are chiefly inhabitants of temperate and cold temperate waters in both the Northern and Southern Hemisphere. See **CYCLOSTOMATA (CHORDATA)**.

[RMB]

## Pewee

A name usually applied to the wood pewee *Contopus urens*, a moderate sized flycatcher of the family Tyrannidae. This dusky forest flycatcher can be distinguished from its relatives by the absence of an eye ring and the presence of a white wing bar. Its clear flute-like call peewee.



The wood pewee *Contopus urens* (Fors.) E. L. Palm *Feldbook of Natural History* McGraw-Hill 1949)

With the middle syllable the  $\pi$  tone is a characteristic song of the eastern deciduous forest especially as the first song of the morning. It is replaced in the western forest by the western wood pewee *C. sordidulus*. The name pewee is often applied to the phoebe. See **FLYCATCHER PASSERIFORMES PHOEBE**. [JDB]

## Pewter

An alloy containing tin and lead usually in proportion of four to six parts of tin to one of lead. Other metals are sometimes added with or in place of the lead including copper, antimony, and zinc. Pewter has limited use in the making of ornaments and



Fig 3 ( ) Pl t with b l d k h ldf t l d with p phy (m l e l l i h ) b g  
 d h t m th l l d b l d d r s f t s d th d ( ) S t th gh f m l o p t f  
 A t d t p p l Th b l k p t th l d with p phy e d with a f w g t  
 l H the p g l d g t th t ng gg (F m H f f l d O T p p C l l g  
 p t l (b) S t th gh m l p t l B t y d Holt 1954)

eggs p o d e d i g n m a y from ight  
 F t e S g m A m e t d on  
 t k p l the format f th hapl d egg and  
 p r m f m the d p l d p l t A l t r the l b r t n  
 f th g m t h e n l e r m (f e r t i l i z a t i o n)  
 u t h d p l d y g t e t h u f r m d g e r m i t e s  
 a l m t i m m e d i a t l y S e G e t r i c s [P. A. V.]  
 B b l g r p h y S e T h a l l o p h y t a

# Phagocytosis

A t m e d i g e e r l b l o y t f e to the en  
 g l i m t f a p t l b a l l p o i m p o r t  
 t t n t h u t r i t f m n y p t a n d p m t  
 t m t a a d the m t a m r p h o i d  
 d i p o l f m t a b o l p d t f h g h e r f m s  
 f m e d p h g y t r f r e s p e l l y t t h  
 g l i m t f n a d g m g a m s b y t h  
 w d n g p l y m p h o c l e a r d m n l  
 l l m p h g f t h b l o d d t h m o  
 p h g e c f the t u l d t h f l y t e m l d i g  
 t h w n d g h t y t and the u a f i x e d  
 p h g o c i l l f the p l n l l y m p h d t s  
 f b o m r w P h g y t o t h o f  
 t h p i m r d f m m h a m m m n t y  
 t f i t S C A R D I O L L A R S Y S t  
 V r z f r u o z o  
 T h d g e e f l a g v i v p a t l r z  
 t d p d f t the nat m f the m c o  
 t l f t e d T h r l o f m y  
 l t t l i e d w t h t p e o n f  
 p a t l p o l a f d p r t i n f a o m  
 p o t t h t h h s p h a g y t The f  
 p p e t e s f q t y h l i e d b y n t a c t  
 t h p e c f n i l l p a t b o d  
 o l m p l m t i p n t l t h t t h e  
 t e d l n w m d l p h g o c y t d A  
 e c n d f t t h a t f t h t t h  
 f h h t h m r o o g n m n d p h g o  
 y t l l e s t g h u f e a p o m t e

han ed fa e p h g o y t s In the body b c t e r i a  
 m y n the p r e s n c f the a p p r o p a t a t b o d y  
 and o m p l e m e t b o m e a d h e e t t o p t i l e s  
 c h e y t h r c y t e ( m m u s d h e r e n c ) and in  
 t h s o n d t n t h y a e m e u s c e p t b l t p h a g o  
 c y t o s t h n w h f e

A a t t y f m e q e e m y n e n the  
 m r o g a m s h a b u n g l f d In m a y  
 t c b c t e s a e a d l y d g s t d n d d e  
 t s e d i f t h o t h e f a t o i n p a t h g i t y a e  
 f v r a b l t t h h s t f l l p r o t i n d c o v e r y  
 f o l l w H w e e m n y m a p r t n t p a t h o g e n a u c h  
 s t h s t a p h y l c u c s u r v i m d o f t e n m u l t i  
 p l y w t h l k o y t e I n t r a c u l l a r m r o g a n  
 m a e c a c t e s t a l l y f o u d i n t u l e m a  
 t y p h o d f e e b r u c l l s a d t u b c u l s m n g  
 t h h c d e s In t h s s t a t e t h e b a t e r i  
 m y t l l y b p t e c t e d g n t h b a c t e d a l  
 a c t o f n t i b d y and m p l m e t a w e l l a  
 s m a l t h u g h n o t a l l t u b o t e T h u l t i m t  
 r e s l t n o f u h f t u d e p e n d a c o m p l x  
 b l n e b e t w e h t a d p r a n e S A n t i b i  
 o t i c B u c e l l o s i s I m u n i t y O p o v i v S t a p h  
 y l o c c o c c u s T u b e r c u l o s i s T u l a r e n i a T y p h o i d  
 F e e r V i r u l e n c e [H P T]

B b l g p h y E A N l m J r T h m m u n e  
 a d l c p h o m e n P c R y S M d  
 49 55-58 1956 E S t e r l t e t n b e t w e e  
 p h a g y t e s d p t h g e i c m c o o r g m l l  
 t l R e 20 94-132 1956

# Phalarganda

A r d f the c l a s A r a c h n i d The m e m b e r f  
 t h i r d a l k o the O l o e r h a r  
 c t d b y u g m t d p h l t h t b a d l y  
 j o e d t g m t e d a b d o m p d h l a t  
 h l a p a r e d p l p f p f g m t e d  
 l g p r o f m p l e y e a d g t l p g  
 h e t e t h e f u t h o x T h e r b d n e f m

form to a complex body having a basal attachment structure and a stemlike main plant body. The latter may be branched or unbranched and of lengths varying up to about 50 meters. They may be broad and ribbonlike or have leaflike branches and are often provided with air bladders. The largest forms may have a relatively complex internal structure.

**Classification.** The Phaeophyta are divided into three classes on the basis of their life cycles. The *Loganatae* are distinguished by having an isomorphic alternation of generations. A typical example of this group is *Ectocarpus* (Fig. 1), a genus of world-wide distribution with many species. It grows upon rocks or is epiphytic upon plants, usually other brown algae. The plant body is composed of branched filaments which may be 5–6 in long. Each cell is uninucleate with one or more simple or lobed plastids. The plant body may be either gametophytic or sporophytic (isomorphic). The diploid zygote is the first cell of the sporophytic generation which develops into the usual branched plant.

Two kinds of reproductive organs may be produced by the sporophyte. The terminal part of certain branchlets enlarges forming a sporangium. The single nucleus of the young sporangium divides meiotically and then the daughter cells subdivide mitotically until there are 32 or 64 free nuclei (see MEIOSIS, MITOSIS). There ensues a cleavage of the protoplast into small uninucleate protoplasts, each containing a single chromatophore. Each of these protoplasts develops into a pyriform (pear-shaped), laterally biflagellate zoospore. The zoospores are produced within a common cavity which opens through an apical pore; this type of sporangium is unilocular. Meiosis occurs in the first of the nuclear divisions so that the zoospores and the resulting plants are haploid. The terminal portions of other lateral branches by numerous vertical and transverse cell divisions may produce an aggregation of small cubical cells each containing a protoplast which may become a zoospore. Each of these zoospores is formed from a separate cell; such sporangia are said to be plurilocular. The zoospores are diploid and upon germination produce additional sporophytes. The gametophytic plants (developed from zoospores formed in the unilocular sporangia) produce only plurilocular sporangia. The motile cells formed in sporangia may unite in pairs to form zygotes; the beginning of a new diploid generation or may develop asexually into plants which are haploid and gametophytic.

Neither sexuality nor an alternation of generations is obligate as both the gametophyte and the sporophyte can be reproduced asexually. Other examples of common genera belonging to this order are *Cutleria* and *Dictyota*.

The second class the *Heterogeneratae* is distinguished by a heteromorphic alternation of generations. This includes the order *Laminariales*, the species of which are commonly known as the kelp. In *Laminaria* the sporophyte is a large complex

perennial plant consisting of a branching holdfast, a stipe (stemlike structure) and an expanded blade (Fig. 2). This is the dominant generation. The gametophytes are microscopic branching filaments which although free living are relatively ephemeral. Male and female gametes are produced on separate gametophytes and gametic union is oogamous. It is of interest that the relation of the two generations is very similar to that found in the higher ferns and related groups.

The third class *Cyclosporeae* is a group in which there is only a free living diploid generation. There is but one order, the *Fucales* which contains such well known genera as *Fucus*, *Ascophyllum* and *Sargassum*. In *Fucus* (Fig. 3) the production of reproductive cells is confined to the tip of the dichotomously branched thallus. Egg and sperm may be produced on the same plant or on different plants depending on the species. As in all Phaeophyta the sperm are laterally biflagellate. The

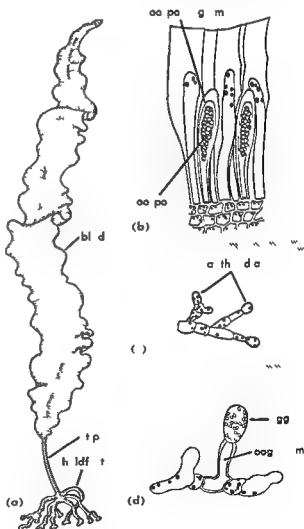


Fig. 2. *Laminaria*. (a) Sporophyte with thick holdfast, stipe and blade. (b) Sporangium at tip of blade showing two oospores. (c) Male gametophyte with male gametes. (d) Female gametophyte with oogonium. (F. M. H. J. F. H. 1954).

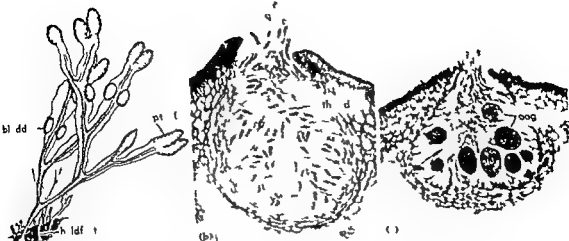


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## Phagocytosis

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## Phalangida

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less than 1 to over 15 mm in length. Respiration is by tracheae. Many species possess scent glands whose openings are at the antero-lateral portion of the cephalothorax. The female emits a material with a pungent odor. The phalangids lay eggs which hatch into forms resembling the adults. Their food consists of vegetable matter and soft-bodied insects.

While members of this order are found throughout the world, they attain their greatest abundance and diversity in the moist tropics. In the temperate regions they are often bizarrely spined and possess elaborate dorsal color patterns. In temperate areas the species are drab and often have long spindly legs. These are the forms popularly known as daddy long legs or harvestmen.

There are three suborders: the Cyphophthalmi, small mite-like forms; the Limnoria, with flattened, often colorful bodies found chiefly in tropical areas; some species adapted to cave life; the Palpatores, including the long-legged forms found in temperate areas. Common genera are *Leiobunum* and *Phalangium*. See ARACHNIDA [CJCO]

## Phalarope

Any member of the family Phalaropidae consisting of three monospecific genera. They are shorebirds but differ from sandpipers in several respects. The toes are webbed basally and have lateral membrane as in Wilson's phalarope *Steganopus tricolor* or with lobed margins as in the two pelagic marine species. The female is the larger and more brilliantly colored. It is also the female that does the courting and selection of the nest site while the male incubates the eggs.

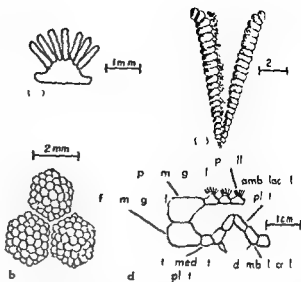


Th Wilson's phalarope *Steganopus tricolor* length to 10 in (Forness L. Palm Fieldbook for Natural History, McGraw-Hill, 1949)

All three species nest in the Northern Hemisphere. Wilson's phalarope is found in the marshes of the Great Basin and Great Plains, whereas the two marine species are circumpolar. The northern phalarope *Lobipes lobatus* and the red phalarope *Phalaropus fulicarius* are both capable swimmers and may stay away from land for indefinite periods including most of the winter. See CHARADRIIFORMES SANDPIPER [JDB]

## Phanerozoia

An order of Veroidea in which pedicellariae may occur but are not the crossed type and in which the margins of the body are defined by two conspicuous series of marginal plates, one placed vertically above the other. The marginals constitute



Diagnostic features of Phallops. (a) Paxilla in side view. (b) The paxilla in surface view (pseudochaste). (c) Arm of *Astropictes* showing marginal plate and paxilla in transverse section. (d) Transverse section of arm.

a buttressing skeleton which is usually more robust than the ambulatory skeleton. The upper surface is covered by symmetrical rows of plates which often bear brushlike clusters of spines, the paxillae. Papulae are restricted mainly to the upper surface. The tube feet lie in two series in each ambulatory groove. Pentamerous symmetry is more constant than in the other orders of Asteroidea. The order is represented by Paleozoic fossils (suborder *Pentastoma*) and by three other extant suborders. See ASTEROIDEA, NOTOMYOTA, PAXILLOSA, VALVATA [HBF]

## Pharetronida

An order of the subclass Calcinea in the class Calcarea. These sponges have a leuconoid structure. The main skeleton is composed of quadriradiates joined together by a calcareous cement or consists of a rigid calcareous network not composed of spicules. The dermal skeleton commonly includes spicules in the shape of tuning forks or may be composed of overlapping calcareous scales. Examples of this order are *Murchisonella*, *Murchisonella*, and *Petrobia*. See CALCAREA, CALCAREONIA [WDH]

## Pharmaceutical chemistry

The chemistry of drugs and of medicinal and pharmaceutical products. The important aspects of pharmaceutical chemistry are:

1. Isolation, purification, and characterization of medicinal agents and materials from natural sources (mineral, vegetable, mineral, biological, or animal) used in treatment of disease and in compounds for prescription.

2. Synthesis of medicinal agents not known from natural sources or the synthetic duplication of natural substances of economy, purity, or adequate supply of substances known from natural sources.

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## Pharmaceutical testing

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for identity and quantity before being incorporated in the process

In process assays are used to ensure homogeneity of mixing or completeness of reaction in the manufacturing process. Such assays range from simple pH measurements to complex infrared spectrophotometric determinations.

Upon completion of the manufacturing operation batch tickets are usually checked by control inspectors to ensure that each step has been signed for. Representative samples of the bulk batch are taken by the inspectors and submitted to the chemical or biological testing laboratory for final assays. These representative samples may be either composite or random sample.

**Finished product testing** Usually each batch of a pharmaceutical must satisfy four requirements: (1) must conform to (1) the label claim for potency (2) homogeneity standards (3) standards of pharmaceutical elegance and (4) identity requirement.

Potency standards require that the batch meet label claims within specified limits. Monographs of the United States Pharmacopeia or the National Formulary usually indicate maximum and minimum limits for official products. Limits for unofficial products are established by the manufacturer and are usually modeled after those for official products. Potency assays vary in complexity from a simple test on a single component pharmaceutical such as an ascorbic acid tablet to very complex chemical and biological tests on a multicomponent pharmaceutical such as a vitamin preparation containing several vitamins plus mineral. Before approval biological products must meet similar complex and severe criteria for potency.

Some special types of pharmaceuticals require additional complex tests. All parenteral products intended for injection must meet sterility requirements. Frequently tests are required on the effect for pyrogens and for safety (toxicity). These additional tests are necessary to ensure that no undesirable physiological reaction will result from administration of the pharmaceutical.

Statistical quality control trend charts on certain characteristics of a batch such as tablet weights, ampule filled volume, or random assay value indicate conformance to homogeneity standards. Stability tests, which are usually more complex than potency tests, are frequently made to ensure that the pharmaceutical will remain potent and safe for use during normal shelf life. Such tests confirm the absence of harmful deterioration products during the ordinary time lapses between manufacture and use.

Pharmaceutical elegance refers to the physical appearance of the dosage units of pharmaceuticals. Conformance to these standards includes inspection to ensure that solutions are sparkling clear, that tablets are not capped or clumped, that parenteral ampules are free of floaters, and that colored products are of the right hue or shade. These standards govern physical quality.

**Identity** Identity is the final requirement in pharmaceutical testing. Testing for identity guar-

antees that the product has been properly labeled—that is, that the right product is in the right bottle with the right label. Serious consequences would result from a bottle of trichinine tablets carelessly labeled as saccharin tablets. To maintain the identity of the product, extensive checks are made throughout the manufacturing operation, including the use of duplicate label tags on all bulk goods, and very rigid controls are applied to printing, storage, and application of labels on finished pharmaceuticals to ensure final identity.

Only when all the operations in the production of pharmaceuticals from securing raw material to labeling the final container are rigidly controlled through testing and checking procedures can one be assured that the pharmaceutical is pure, safe, and efficacious. See BIOASSAY, QUALITY CONTROL.

[W.B.F.]  
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## Pharmacognosy

The general biology, biochemistry, and economics of nonfood natural products of value in medicine, pharmacy, and other health professions. The products studied are of biologic origin, either plant or animal. They may consist of entire organ mixtures obtained by exudation or extraction or chemicals obtained by extraction and subsequent purification.

Pharmacognosy literally means knowledge of drugs as do pharmacology and pharmacy. The center of interest in pharmacology, however, is on the mode of action of all drugs on the animal body, particularly on man. In pharmacy, major attention is directed toward provision of suitable dosage forms, their production and distribution. Pharmacognosy is restricted to natural products, with attention centered on sources of drugs, plant and animal.

**Sources of materials** Organs or occasionally entire plant or animals are dried or frozen for preservation and are termed crude drugs. They may be used medicinally in essentially this form as in the case of the cardiac drug digitalis or the endocrine drug thyroid, or as sources of mixtures or of chemicals obtained by process of extraction.

Mixtures obtained by exudation from living plants include such drugs as opium, turpentine, and acacia. Processes of extraction are employed to obtain such mixtures as peppermint oil (from distillation), podophyllum resin (percolation), and parathyroid extract (oligation). For addition of classes of natural products with medically significant members of the type of ESSENTIAL OILS, FAT AND OIL, EDIBLE CUM TERPENE WAX, ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE.

Pure chemicals may be extracted from a crude drug (for example, the glycoside digitoxin from digitalis or the hormone insulin from pancreas) from a mixture obtained by exudation (for example, the alkaloid morphine from opium).

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Uses of materials Medical history

and insulin and poliomyelitis vaccine are examples

Pharmaceutical sales are chiefly in the products in the following categories: emulsions and suspensions, tablets, capsules, syrups, and ointments. Many natural products of significant therapeutic value are home remedies.

Uses in other health professions include antiptic protectives and local anesthetics used by dentists, rodenticides and pesticides and other pesticides used in the protection of the public health and the art of prophylactic and therapeutic agents used by veterinarians.

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h p r t n e a g n t. S u b e q n t t h e r p u t i c u e f

reserpine and other rauwolfia products soon demonstrated the tranquilizing action. A large class of drugs having hypotensive action, tranquilizing effect or both has been developed rapidly. Various species of the genus have been characterized morphologically and intensive study has been undertaken of practical methods of culture.

A third major class of modern drugs of natural origin, the antibiotics, has been developed largely since the beginning of World War II. The prototype penicillin was discovered in part as a result of fortuitous accident, but the many other commercially available antibiotics have been developed as a result of carefully planned systematic search.

Not infrequently the clue that has led to collection and scientific investigation of a crude drug as a possible source of medically significant constituent has been use of the drug by uncivilized peoples for a nonmedical but to them desirable purpose such as narcotics or as a poison against wild animals or man. The use of opium as a narcotic by the laity undoubtedly preceded its medical use. Coca was chewed or sucked by the Indians of South America to increase endurance, was condemned by the Spanish who conquered the Incas but was eventually introduced into medical practice in Europe. Discovery of the local anesthetic action of the alkaloid cocaine led to the development of a new and important class of therapeutic agents, the local anesthetics.

A second native drug from South America, curare, was first used by the Indians as an arrow poison for killing wild animals used as food. The neuromuscular paralysis caused in game by the drug suggested therapeutic use as a muscular relaxant. Studies of the plants yielding crude curares revealed several species of two principal genera, *Strychnos* and *Chondodendron* as the main sources. A number of crystalline alkaloids was isolated from crude curares; eventually the alkaloid tubocurarine was identified as having the therapeutic potentialities suggested by the paralyzing action of the native drug. The botanical source was established as *Chondodendron tomentosum*.

Comparative studies of the African arrow poisons, *tee* and *kombe*, have added ouabain and strophanthin to the class of cardioactive glycosides of which digitoxin is the most widely used. The arrow poisons are prepared from African species of *Strophanthus* and are used by natives of both the eastern and western coasts.

The alkaloid physostigmine, also from an African poison and useful in the treatment of glaucoma, was discovered as a result of use of its plant source as a human poison in the trial by ordeal of those accused of offenses. The alkaloid is the toxic constituent of the seeds of *Physostigma venenosum*, which were fed to the accused. Toxic symptoms were taken as evidence of guilt; those who vomited the material were considered guilty.

**Synthetic materials.** Development of synthetic drugs related chemically to the active constituent of a natural product has frequently followed in

investigation of primitive use of the natural product as a drug or poison. The objective of such development is usually to produce a drug having fewer undesirable side effects while retaining the useful therapeutic action. Substitutes for morphine, reserpine, cocaine, tubocurarine, and physostigmine are among a host of synthetic drugs which accomplish the objective to a greater or lesser degree and which discovery depended upon study of natural products.

Intermediates useful in the laboratory synthesis of drugs often exist as therapeutically inactive chemicals in natural products. Plants and animal biosynthesize many such compounds with chemical structures similar to but not identical with medically useful substances. A slight change in molecular configuration may yield a potent therapeutic agent. A simple example is pinene, a chemical abundant in turpentine oil and convertible by laboratory procedures into camphor. The resulting synthetic camphor is actually emisynthetic and possesses the therapeutic and most other properties of natural camphor.

An important class of natural intermediates are the steroids, widely distributed in both plants and animal. Some chemical variations are active physiologically and as drugs, for example sex and adrenal cortical hormones. Natural source glands of domesticated animals used as food by man are not available in quantities adequate to fulfill the drug needs for these products. Many plants contain steroids suitable as intermediates for ex hormones. Natural intermediates readily converted into adrenal cortical hormones are uncommon and extensive search for such steroids has been made since the late 1940s. Field studies involving collection and identification of plants judged to be potentially good sources of steroid, preliminary extraction and determination of the presence or absence of the intermediates and further collection, drying and preserving of larger quantities of promising species.

Systematic screening of plants of reputed therapeutic value and indigenous to a country or other restricted geographic area is a costly and time-consuming procedure—a major reason it has been done for relatively few regions. Notwithstanding such surveys give promise of uncovering new source for known useful drugs, adding to knowledge of such little known chemical hallucinogens and anticarcinogenic drugs, developing entirely new classes of therapeutic agents and providing profitable material for intermediate materials useful in drug synthesis. See ANTIMICROBIAL AGENTS, BIOCHEMISTRY, PATHOLOGY, PHARMACEUTICAL CHEMISTRY, PHARMACOLOGY, PHARMACY, PLANT PHYSIOLOGY, TRANQUILIZER.

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fields see MEDICINE PHARMACEUTICAL CHEMISTRY PHARMACOGNOSY PHARMACOLOGY

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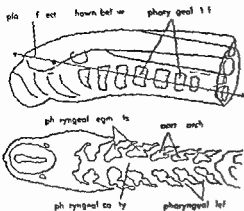
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## Pharynx

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**Embryology** Shortly after the germ layers of the embryo are in place, the pharyngeal cavity appears as a simple enlargement of the anterior end of the endoderm tube. Its lateral or lateroventral wall promptly becomes thickened as a series of paired pillars, the pharyngeal elements (branchial arches, visceral arches), separated from their fellow visceral pouches by the pharynx outward from the endodermal lining of the cavity. The pharyngeal pouches are approached on each side by corresponding branchial grooves which pouch inward from the head ectoderm. The matching groove and pouches may meet their touching surfaces and they then become thinned as a closing plate and they may actually break through a pharyngeal cleft. The mouth perforates into the pharyngeal cavity in a similar way anteroventrally. The embryonic appearance of the pharynx as an enlarged anterior gut chamber, whose walls are marked by pouches, grooves, clefts and intervening pillarlike elements, is one of the few characteristic findings in all members of the phylum.

The more primitive vertebrate embryos, such as those of lampreys and harks, have up to seven or even more pairs of large open pharyngeal clefts of



Lamprey embryo showing pharynx

fastly u (rm use Embryos reptil bird and mammal) so few r gm nt and la predication (th more po t r = new. Also e eal of the la t pharyng al p uche sa) to break through a cleft. When in m t h hes e eal po t r r cleft l ome enl ged nd the interven g egment be om equped with gill and val es d r i g d l pm nt, few e lges f e ther pou h s or cleft em at adult stages f l nd n mal. Ne ether less, in all ettebr tes the sol d t ues of the pharyng al egm nt g i e e to numer s tr ctures f th he d and neck.

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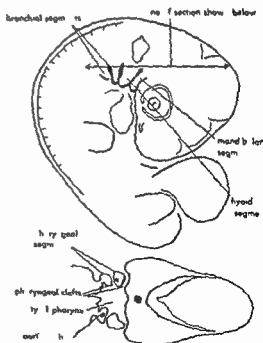
**Pharyngeal derivatives** Th f t p of pharyng al gme ts, lled th m dib la egm ts l th m uth between th m s d th ur kele t n form g ell g odu e th m ndular art l g wh h a e the a s t rudim nt of the lower jaw Th m u l e l rm g ell d f f atiate nt a d l g r p f m el wh e p i spal fu ton n l l g n th t ome e t e b ste s t n p th j w but, and t l g p wh ch upport the ton e ty f m n g a he c b tw n th b les f the lower l. All th m les a uppld by th motor d t of th t g m l nrv. SC GNATHO TO

STA The ec d p r e alled th hvd m t. They a j t p o t r r to the re dibul g m nt u ally sep ated fr m them ter p a lly b h yom d b la l e f t Th y l ventr l t the a les on th de of th embryo m h ad Th r k l t n j m n l l fo m m p o r nt pa r s of th t ngue upport and th mu l are u d s om r b r e for p g the m uth f t ngue m pul t n f l l e p on ud r r fu e

t n The m t r d i n f th f e al nerve in n vate the hvd gr p f mu les. In higher vert brate the hvd mand l lar s ucl s s ol r d in the fo m n of the s d r y to h and th m l l e ear space.

The th rd and all m re po t r r p r e are called lra l al egm nt i e s f h eal yu all f r m g l l bearing ar tes the t e t l e r p r e d n d i p e r e d t h de e l p m e t f t h l g h e r s r e b a t e s. The r k e l t n f r m i n g l l i t h r f m a u c e s i n o f j u n t e d r d l k e bones or cartilage f r th upport f gill a i n f h e r s j ; the h y o i k e l e t n m t n g u e upport and c n n r a t ventrally t h l y n artilage a i n t e r r e s t r a t e s. In f h e s the m u s c l e s l e r e d l r m t h f i r s t b r a n l i a l e g m e n t (th t h u d n t h e p h a r y n g a l e e s) are a t t h y i n n r a t e d b y the p h a r y n g a l n e a l n r e and t h f a l l s e r e s t i t h g m t h y i n d i d u a l l y n e t s of the s a g n r y. T h e y f u n f m a n i p u l a t a l t h g l l and f r g r n d i n g and w a l l n g f o o d. In l g h r v e r t e b r a t e s the f r a n c l a l e g m e n t b e m l e s a n l l e s d i n e t d r i n g d e l c m nt and the n r e s u p p l y w h i l e t h l d e d f o m t h g l o s s o p h a r y n g a l and a g m r e s i n t s c l e a r l y g m n t a l i n t h t r t e d m u l e s t e m e l e s l e c m a r r n g d m a m r e r l e s e n t n u p h a r y n x r n t r i t h e e t or n g r e g a t e i n the l y n g e a l c a r t i l g e e r v i n g n e w m e h a n m s f s w a l l w i g and u n d p r e d e u n S e S e e 37

**Histology** The pharynx l n g n a l l i n e d l a m p l m e u m m i r a n e b a k e d b y f l r u c n n e c t i e t u e s d a d u l f l a s of t r a s t e d m a l e. In b o n y f i e s t h k e l a l a r c h e s m y b e t h k l a t t u d d w t h m p l e t e t h o r m a s e n b e d e v e l



Chick embryo showing pharynx



fields see **MEDICINE** **PHARMACEUTICAL CHEMISTRY** **PHARMACOGNOSY** **PHARMACOLOGY**

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[410]

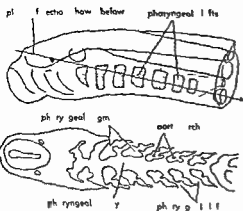
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The more primitive vertebrates, many such as those of lampreys and harks, have up to eleven or more pairs of large pharyngeal slits.



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The pharyngeal ectoderm of the embryo is lined by the endoderm (the future gut) on the inside and by the ectoderm (the future mucous membrane) on the outside. The ectoderm is closed between the lateral hypopharyngeal plates (pharynx). Respiratory system I divide it into the ectodermal pharyngeal pouches and the endodermal pharyngeal pouches and differ-

tiate them into the pharyngeal pouches and the pharyngeal pouches.

Neural crest

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 l e s o t h i d o f t h e m b r y n h e d T h r  
 k l f m g l l f r m m p r t a p l f t h  
 t m u p p r t e d n t h l e s d n m e  
 r i e b r t e s f o o p n a g t h m t h f t g  
 m n p l a t f f l a p r n d t h e r f u

tin The motor division of the facial nerve innervates the hyoid group of muscle. In fighter, cervical rate the mandibular group is innervated in the formation of the auditory tube and the middle ear space.

[illegible]

Histology The pharynx is generally lined by simple mucous membrane of stratified squamous epithelium and all layers are innervated by the vagus nerve.

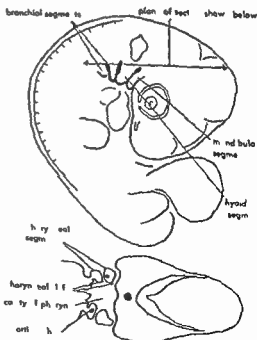
The larynx consists of cartilages, ligaments, muscles, and vocal folds. It is lined by stratified squamous epithelium.

The trachea is composed of hyaline cartilage rings connected by smooth muscle and connective tissue. It is lined by ciliated columnar epithelium.

The bronchi have similar structure to the trachea but with less cartilage and more smooth muscle.

The bronchioles lack cartilage and have a thick layer of smooth muscle.

The alveoli are small sacs where gas exchange occurs. They are lined by simple cuboidal epithelium.



Ch k mbry d w d ho t l ct s

oped into grinding or crushing plates. Terrestrial vertebrates show simple tubular glands emptying usually in great numbers through the mucous membrane and tonsillar collections of lymphoid tissue in the submucosa. See TOXICIL.

**Gross derivatives.** Elaborate gill pouches are developed in all aquatic groups and subject to many special adaptations. They differ sharply in design in lampreys, hagfish, cartilaginous fishes and the bony fishes. A median ventral evagination from the posterior end of the pharynx gives rise to the entire respiratory system of the land vertebrates, including lungs, larynx and trachea. A similar but often dorsal evagination, usually from the pharynx, is the ophagus boundary gives rise to the air bladder in bony fishes. See RESPIRATORY SYSTEM. SWIM BLADDER.

The epithelium of the pharyngeal pouches and of the pharynx floor produces a constellation of endocrine glands and other structures. See PARATHYROID GLAND, THYROID GLAND, THYROID GLAND, ULTIMOBRANCHIAL BODIES. [W.W.B.]

**Bibliography.** L. B. Arey, *Developmental Anatomy*, 6th ed., 1954. A. S. Romer, *The Vertebrate Body*, 2d ed., 1955.

## Pharynx disorders

The following include the more common congenital defects, inflammation, tumors and nervous disorders which affect the pharynx.

Congenital defects commonly seen are malformed or split uvulae or cleft palates and extension of a cleft palate backward to the pharyngeal region. See HARELIP.

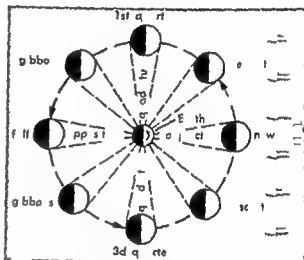
Inflammations may be local or part of a systemic involvement. Acute pharyngitis may be caused by almost any irritant and typically does not involve an infection by a microorganism. Acute follicular pharyngitis, caused by infectious bacteria, usually streptococci, it is also called 'septic sore throat'. Acute tonsillitis involves the masses of lymphoid tissue found in the back of the pharynx. The tonsils may also be the seat of peritonsillar abscesses. All of the above inflammations may persist as subacute or chronic diseases, but usually the more prolonged forms occur as a result of repeated attacks or low grade persistent infection. See STREPTOCOCCUS.

The most common benign tumor of this region is the papilloma, hemangioma, fibroma and other less common nonmalignant growths are also found here. The malignant tumors of the pharynx include several varieties of carcinoma and sarcoma, particularly lymphoma are mas in children. See ONCOLOGY.

Nervous disorders seen not infrequently are paresis (abnormal enervation) and hyperesthesia (increased sensation). Neuralgia of the glossopharyngeal nerve is marked by severe pain in the neck, ear, jaw region. Motor disorders which affect swallowing may originate from local irritations or from central nervous system diseases as in the case of rabies. See PHARYNX, SOMESTHESIS. [E.G.S.]

## Phase (astronomy)

In astronomy, the changing appearance of the Moon, inner planets and Mars due to the angular difference between the incident light from the Sun and the viewing direction of the observer. Phases of the Moon are a familiar sight. During a lunar month (29.53 Earth days), the Moon completes a cycle of appearances or phases: dark of the Moon or new Moon, during which the Moon is nearer the Sun than the Earth, crescent until first quarter (about a week after new Moon), half an illuminated disk, the Moon continues to wax, being gibbous until it is full, then wanes through third quarter and completes the cycle as illustrated. A



View from Earth of Moon differently illuminated at Moon's orbit around Earth.

solar eclipse by the Moon can occur only at dark of the Moon, a lunar eclipse when the Earth's shadow falls on the Moon can occur only at full Moon.

Mercury and Venus show phases like those of the Moon. Mars varies in appearance from full to gibbous. The more remote planets are so far from Earth and Sun that they are viewed from substantially the same angle as that from which they are illuminated and thus show no phase change. [C.R.K.]

## Phase (periodic phenomena)

The fractional part of a period through which the time variable of a periodic quantity (alternating electric current vibration) has moved as measured at any point in time from an arbitrary time origin. In the case of a sinusoidally varying quantity, the time origin is usually assumed to be the instant at which the quantity passes through a zero position from a negative to a positive direction. It is customary to choose the origin so that the fractional part of the period is less than unity.

In comparing the phase relationships at a given instant between two time-varying quantities, the



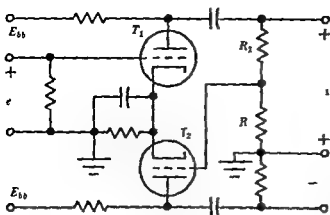


Fig 2 Single-tube inverter

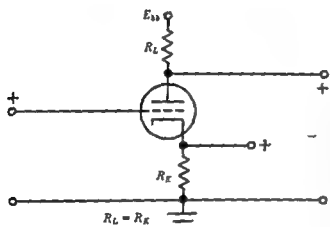


Fig 3 Two-tube phase inverter

In general  $e_1 = -Ae$  and  $e_2 = R_2 / (R_1 + R_2) A'e$  where  $A$  is the gain of the stage. This gain is frequency dependent and therefore the phase shift varies with frequency. Because  $e_2$  is a function of the square of the gain the phase shift of  $e_2$  will be twice as large at any frequency as will the phase shift of  $e_1$ . The two voltages are then not 180° out of phase and distortion will be introduced.

Numerous variations of the above two tube phase amplifier are possible. The two-tube circuit can be quite compact because one twin triode handles the tube requirements.

If the phase inverter circuit is to produce two voltages 180° out of phase the equivalent circuit governing the behavior of the two output voltages must be identical. The midfrequency gain of each must be identical and the phase shift functions must be identical (which was not true in this circuit). The phase shift requirements are often compromised in the interests of simplicity of the final circuit and freedom from critical adjustments of key circuit parameters. [HFK]

## Phase meter

An instrument for the measurement of electrical phase angle. It is sometimes called the crossed coil meter or the Tuma phase meter and is the basic element of power factor meters and synchroscopes. When used for power factor indication it contains two movable coils A and B on a common shaft as shown in the illustration. The two coils move as a

unit, the angle  $\beta$  between them remaining fixed. There is no restraining spring acting on the shaft and the system will turn as long as currents produce an average nonzero torque.

The meter contains a fixed coil C which carries the load current. The fixed coil is made in two sections so that its magnetic field will be nearly uniform in the neighborhood of the movable coil.

The instantaneous force induced on coil A is proportional to the product of the instantaneous currents in coils A and C and to the sine of the angle between the planes of A and C. If the currents in A and C are sine-wave currents with phase displacement  $\theta$  the average torque  $T$  is proportional to

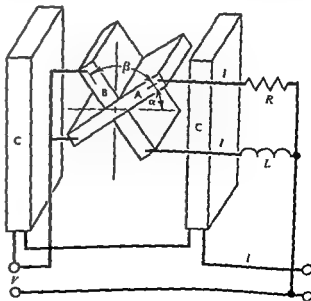
$$T = I I \cos \theta \cos \alpha$$

The movable coil A is placed in a resistive circuit so that its current  $I$  is in phase with the voltage  $V$ . The other movable coil B is placed in an inductive circuit so that its current lags the voltage by approximately 90°.

In actual construction the circuit of coil A cannot be made noninductive and the circuit of coil B cannot be made nonresistive. Therefore the phase angle between the currents in coils A and B is less than 90°. The phase meter is constructed to take this into account.

If the current in coil B leads the current in fixed coil C by the angle  $\theta$  and the current in coil B lags the current in coil A by the angle  $\phi$  then the current in coil A will lead the current in the fixed coil by the angle  $(\theta + \phi)$  and the average torque on A is proportional to  $\cos(\theta + \phi) \cos \alpha$  whereas the average torque on B is proportional to  $\cos \theta \cos(\alpha + \beta)$  and in the opposite direction. If these torques do not cancel the shaft will turn ( $\alpha$  will vary) until the two become equal or when  $\cos(\theta + \phi) \cos \alpha = \cos \theta \cos(\alpha + \beta)$ .

From this equation it is now evident that if  $\beta$  equals  $\phi$  then  $\alpha$  equals  $\theta$  and the phase meter



Tuma phase meter

detected by the phase angle between the  
vectors applying coil C and the e o c d l A  
change of S in the phase angle will produce a  
deflection f s on the phase meter See PHASE  
ANGLE MEASURE TEST POWER FACTOR METER

[U.S.]

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## Phase modulation

A special kind of angle modulation in which the  
instantaneous phase angle of a wave carrier has  
added to it a phase angle that is proportional to the  
instantaneous value of the modulating wave (m-  
odulating immunated) Phase modulation (PM)  
is a method of impressing the message to be com-  
municated upon a high frequency wave carrier. The  
carrier is directly proportional to the message to be com-  
municated. The modulated wave is propagated  
to the receiver. For basic concepts see Modulation  
See also ANGLE MODULATION

Advantages and applications. Like other forms  
of modulation PM reduces noise at the cost  
of transmission efficiency and bandwidth. It is  
used in point-to-point communication systems  
where a high quality of transmission is required.  
It is also used in the transmission of data and  
in the transmission of voice. PM is used in the  
transmission of data and in the transmission of voice.

Important applications include certain types of  
telemetry, navigation, and communication. PM is  
used in the transmission of data and in the transmission  
of voice. It is also used in the transmission of data  
and in the transmission of voice.

The basic principle of phase modulation is that the  
instantaneous phase of the carrier wave is varied  
in proportion to the instantaneous value of the  
modulating signal. This is done by adding a phase  
shift to the carrier wave.

Noise response of PM. Noise appears as a variation  
in the phase of the carrier wave. This variation  
is proportional to the amplitude of the noise. The  
noise response of PM is therefore proportional to the  
amplitude of the noise. This is a disadvantage of PM.  
However, the noise response of PM is less than that  
of frequency modulation (FM). This is because the  
phase shift is proportional to the amplitude of the  
modulating signal, while the frequency shift is  
proportional to the frequency of the modulating  
signal. Therefore, the noise response of PM is less  
than that of FM.

Fundamental properties of PM. The fundamental  
properties of PM are: 1. The phase shift is  
proportional to the amplitude of the modulating  
signal. 2. The phase shift is independent of the  
frequency of the modulating signal. 3. The phase  
shift is independent of the carrier frequency.

variation and conversely. All generated signals are  
subject to the other.

For example, PM is the instantaneous phase  
variation imparted to the modulated wave. The  
directly proportional to the modulating wave. The  
resulting variation in instantaneous frequency at  
however directly proportional to the time derivative  
of the modulating wave.

Similarly in FM the instantaneous frequency of  
the modulated wave is linearly proportional to the  
modulating wave. However, the resulting variation  
in instantaneous phase is directly proportional to the  
time integral of the modulating wave.

Actually PM and FM are essentially different  
in that the frequency (or frequency) is varied  
proportional to the phase modulation (PM) or FM  
and following an FM detector the frequency is  
proportional to the phase modulation. Similarly a circuit which  
is directly proportional to the frequency (or  
frequency) is proportional to the phase modulation.  
The FM and PM and the following are the same  
in that the phase is proportional to the frequency.

Angle modulation may be defined as the variation of  
the angle of the modulated wave. These variations are the  
instantaneous frequency deviation from the carrier  
frequency. The frequency deviation is the variation  
of the frequency of the unmodulated carrier and the  
instantaneous phase deviation is the variation of the  
phase of the carrier wave. The frequency deviation is  
the variation of the frequency of the carrier wave.  
The phase deviation is the variation of the phase of the  
carrier wave. The frequency deviation is the variation  
of the frequency of the carrier wave. The phase deviation  
is the variation of the phase of the carrier wave.

When a detector is used to detect the modulated  
signal, the detector must be able to detect the  
instantaneous frequency deviation. This is because the  
frequency deviation is the variation of the frequency  
of the carrier wave. The phase deviation is the  
variation of the phase of the carrier wave. The  
frequency deviation is the variation of the frequency  
of the carrier wave. The phase deviation is the  
variation of the phase of the carrier wave.

See also PHASE MODULATION DETECTOR  
Bibliography S C Lidman *Frequency Analysis of Modulated Signals* 1948

## Phase modulator

An electronic circuit that varies the phase of a  
modulated wave to vary (with respect to the  
modulated carrier) the instantaneous value of the  
modulating signal. Phase modulators are commonly  
used in frequency modulation systems, which are  
phase-modulated waves. The instantaneous frequency  
of the modulated wave is varied in proportion to the  
instantaneous value of the modulating signal. The  
phase deviation is the variation of the phase of the  
carrier wave. The frequency deviation is the variation  
of the frequency of the carrier wave.

See also PHASE MODULATION

Phase shift circuit. The principle of operation  
of a phase shift circuit is to vary the phase of the  
modulated wave. This is done by varying the  
frequency of the modulating signal. The phase  
deviation is the variation of the phase of the  
carrier wave. The frequency deviation is the variation  
of the frequency of the carrier wave.

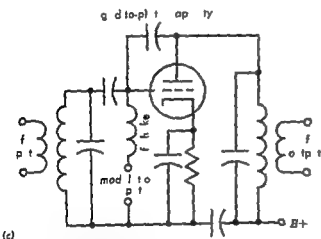
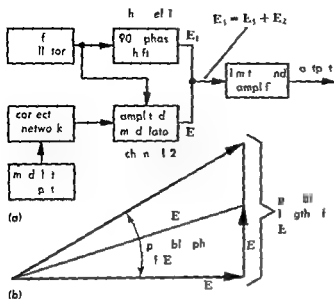


Fig 1 A method for producing phase modulated wave (a) Block diagram showing the principle of operation (b) Vector diagram showing the combination of voltages (c) A circuit which permits the necessary function to be applied to the carrier of the tube

tant The signal is passed through two channels 1 and 2. In channel 1 the signal is shifted 90 degrees in phase and in channel 2 the signal is amplitude modulated. If a frequency modulated wave is desired the modulating voltage is first passed through a correct network in which the output is inversely proportional to frequency. The output of channel 1 and 2 are then combined and passed through the limiter stage to remove the residual amplitude modulation. The action of the circuit is shown in the vector diagram in Fig 1b. Here the vector  $E_1$  remains constant in amplitude and vector  $E_2$  corresponds to the magnitude of the unmodulated signal. The magnitude of vector  $E_2$  can be changed from zero to twice its normal value as it experiences amplitude modulation. Thus it can be seen that the resultant vector  $E_3$  will vary in phase in accordance with the modulating signal. In practice a phase shift of approximately  $\pm 15^\circ$  can be obtained in this manner while a nearly constant frequency is maintained as long as the modulating voltage and the phase of the output signal

A simple circuit that permits the generation of the phase modulated wave in this manner is shown in Fig 1c. In this particular form a control grid modulated amplifier is used with sufficient gain to avoid the oscillation which could otherwise occur as a result of the feedback through the grid plate capacity. In this case the action of channel 1 occurs because of the direct transmission of the signal from the RF input to the output through the grid plate capacity suffering a 90 degree shift in the process. The output of channel 2 is delivered to the output circuit as a consequence of the plate current and the normal grid modulation of the amplifier.

**Armstrong circuit** Another method of obtaining phase modulated or frequency modulated wave employs the Armstrong system shown in Fig 2 which is a modification of the elementary phase shift circuit described above. The carrier oscillator applies to two channels. The first undergoes a 90 degree phase shift as before. The second enters an amplitude modulation balanced modulator in the output of which the carrier is suppressed. Upon recombination the resultant phase modulated wave is obtained and has the advantage that the modulation index can be approximately twice as great as

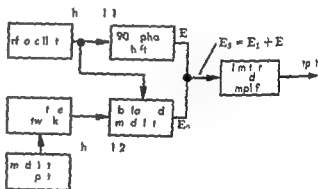


Fig 2 Block diagram of an Armstrong type modulator (frequency) modulator

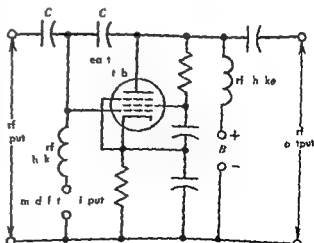


Fig 3 Circuit diagram of the phase shift modulator. The phase shift through the two channels is obtained by controlling the magnitude of the feedback signal by the feedback circuit.

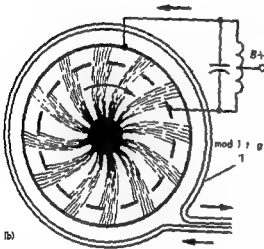
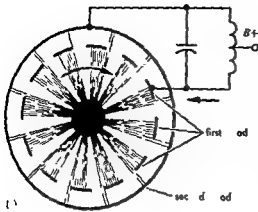


Fig 4. Diagram of the phase shifter modulator. (a) The first and second order modes. (b) The third order mode. The diagram shows the internal structure of the modulator, including the winding and the radial lines. The labels 'mod' and 'g' indicate the modulator and the gap, respectively.

Phase shifter modulator. The diagram shows the internal structure of the modulator, including the winding and the radial lines. The labels 'mod' and 'g' indicate the modulator and the gap, respectively. The diagram is labeled 'Fig 4' and 'IRE 35(1) 1947'.

phase shifter type. The diagram shows the internal structure of the modulator, including the winding and the radial lines. The labels 'mod' and 'g' indicate the modulator and the gap, respectively.

Phasatron. The diagram shows the internal structure of the modulator, including the winding and the radial lines. The labels 'mod' and 'g' indicate the modulator and the gap, respectively. The diagram is labeled 'Fig 4' and 'IRE 35(1) 1947'.

The principle of operation of the phasatron is explained in the text. The diagram shows the internal structure of the modulator, including the winding and the radial lines. The labels 'mod' and 'g' indicate the modulator and the gap, respectively. The diagram is labeled 'Fig 4' and 'IRE 35(1) 1947'.

Fig 4b shows the internal structure of the modulator, including the winding and the radial lines. The labels 'mod' and 'g' indicate the modulator and the gap, respectively. The diagram is labeled 'Fig 4' and 'IRE 35(1) 1947'.

In the text, the principle of operation of the phasatron is explained. The diagram shows the internal structure of the modulator, including the winding and the radial lines. The labels 'mod' and 'g' indicate the modulator and the gap, respectively. The diagram is labeled 'Fig 4' and 'IRE 35(1) 1947'.

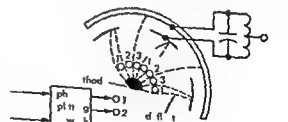


Fig 5. Diagram of the phase shifter modulator. (c) The third order mode. The diagram shows the internal structure of the modulator, including the winding and the radial lines. The labels 'mod' and 'g' indicate the modulator and the gap, respectively. The diagram is labeled 'Fig 5' and 'IRE 35(1) 1947'.



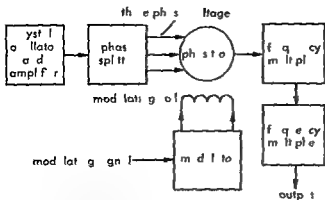


Fig. 6. Block diagram indicating the method of producing frequency modulation by employing the phase-locked loop.

tating electron stream can be produced. This can be seen by imagining that a set of wires numbered 1 are positive whereas 2 and 3 are negative. This causes most of the electron current to be emitted in the direction of the wire numbered 1 thus causing the spoke to form. The field along the squirrel cage rotates in a manner similar to that in a synchronous motor.

Figure 6 shows the block diagram of a frequency modulated transmitter using a phasatron tube. A crystal oscillator operating at some low radio frequency supplies a voltage to the network consisting of inductances and capacitors from which three voltage 120° apart are derived. The introduction of this three phase voltage to the squirrel cage elements of the phasatron creates the rotating electron beam. The rf output from the phasatron is introduced into subsequent frequency multiplier stages. The phase of the output carrier is shifted by means of the signal derived from a modulator amplifier as indicated. [E L C]

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### Phase velocity

The velocity of propagation of a simple harmonic wave. It describes the distance required in unit time for a sinusoidally varying wave to change its phase with respect to a fixed reference by  $2\pi$ . The phase velocity  $v_p$  is equal to the product of frequency  $f$  and wavelength  $\lambda$  that is  $v_p = \lambda f$ .

The magnitude of phase velocity is determined by the intrinsic properties of the medium in which the wave is propagated and by the actual mode of propagation. For small amplitude acoustical waves in a quiescent unbounded gaseous medium the phase velocity is essentially independent of frequency and equal to the speed of sound  $c$  in the medium. This speed is given by the equation  $c = \sqrt{\gamma P / \rho_0}$  where  $\gamma$  is the ratio of specific heat at constant pressure to specific heat at constant volume,  $P$  is the ambient pressure in the medium and  $\rho_0$  is the ambient density of the medium. In a perfect gas the speed of sound becomes a function only of

the absolute temperature of the medium. In air this quantity is approximately  $c = 49.03\sqrt{R}$  ft/sec, where  $R$  is in degrees Rankine or  $\approx 20.5\sqrt{T}$  m/sec where  $T$  is in degree Kelvin. The phase velocity of electromagnetic waves also depend on the medium but in a vacuum the velocity  $c$  is a universal constant approximately equal to  $3 \times 10^{10}$  m/sec.

Waves in a medium which require higher than second order equations for their description such as lateral vibrations of a bar generally have phase velocities which are dependent upon frequency. Thus waves of different frequencies travel with different velocities resulting in dispersion. See GROUP VELOCITY. WAVE MOTION [WJG]

### Phase angle measurement

The determination of the relative times at which alternating currents and voltages in a circuit take on zero values. If two voltages  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  are zero at the same instant they are in phase with zero phase difference (or out of phase with 180° difference). If one voltage  $v_1$  passes through zero  $\frac{1}{4}$  cycle before a second voltage  $v_2$  it leads by  $360^\circ/8$  or  $45^\circ$  (see Fig. 1). The common phase meter a commercial device for determining the angle between current and voltage can be used when its presence will not disturb the circuits under measurement (see PHASE METER). When the phase angles to be measured are in high impedance or low power circuit this instrument is unsatisfactory and other measurement methods must be employed.

**Three voltmeter method** This method can be used when the voltages involve a common point. Figure 2a shows three terminals  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$ . If the voltages  $v_a$ ,  $v_b$  and  $v_c$  are measured by a high impedance voltmeter (one voltmeter is sufficient) the magnitudes can be plotted to give a triangle. Fig 2b. The angle  $\theta$  between  $v_b$  and  $v_c$  can be determined from the law of cosines in trigonometry.

$$v = v_b + v_{\theta} + 2v_b v_{\theta} \cos \theta$$

**Electronic phase angle meter** This instrument gives the angle ( $\pi - \theta$ ) of Fig. 2 directly. One

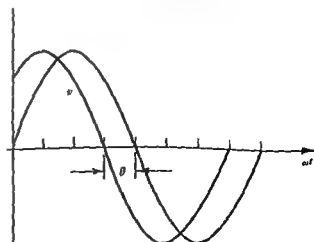
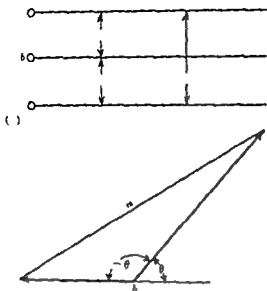


Fig 1 Ph gl b tw e two oltag



(b)  
Fig 2 Volt g mply d n th lmet m th d  
(1) C t d g m (b) V t d g m

u h i t r m e n t n e r t s t h t w o l i g e w a e t  
q a r e w a e b y r p t e d a m p l i f a t a n d l i m i t  
g t h e c a n g i f t h e q u e w a e a c  
d e n t a l t h z e s i g o f t h g n l i t  
a g w m T h e t w q r e w a r e a p p l i e d t  
t h n p t o f r e c i t t h a t w l p u r e t l y  
w h b o t h q a w a r e p o t s i n t h e  
t h e g a t r t h l g o f o l t a g t h m a l l e t h  
e l p i t h p u t t i n d t h e l o w e r t h  
e m r r t T h e u r e t s t h e s p r p  
t n a l t t h f i g 2

T h i s r u t h a s t h t h e o r e t i c l i m i t t n t h a t  
c h p u t l i g e m u t b e g r a t e t h t l  
m m u m a l i p a t c e t h c u t l a l u e s d e  
t m e d b y t h i e t h m p l i p u t I f t h e  
l i g t l w t h r e u e r d m z e r  
e g h t d t h e u l t w l d l s b j e t t  
t h r i n t y

A p i n p h m g l e m t e f r h g h f e q u n y  
l i g e s a b l d l v l a n d t s p e a  
t o b d o t h e f t t h a t t h e d i f f e r e n t  
o l t a g f n a t a m p l i t u d e a m i m m w h e n  
t h t e p h O f t h e t v l t g s t b  
c o m p r e d s m t d t b o t h p t f a a  
b l d l y i w h c h t n a d j t d t m e  
m m m u t p T h t w l i g s t o b e c o m p e d  
a t h o n t e d t t w t e m i l a d t h  
d i l i d j u t e d t o g m m t p t  
T h h g t h d e l y l e t t g g t h t m  
d l y f l i t a g e e l a r t t h t h W h  
t h f i y k w t h t m d l a y a b m  
p u t i a g l f l a g I t d e t h h n g t h  
d e l v l t t g n d t h e f q o f j l p r  
d t t p h e a n g l g e b y 2 / d e t a d i  
360 / d e g e

O s c i l l o s c o p e m e t h o d s P t a n g l e m e e  
m n t b y c e l l p a p p l t h l a b o r a t o r y  
w h e q k p p m t f t q e d I I

o n e l i g e s c o m t e d t t h e v e r t i c a l a x i s f i r  
a n d t h e r t t h e h o r i z o n t a l a m p l i f r a l i a  
j u f i g u r e c l i a c l

I f t h t w l i g e a r e f t h e a m e f r e q u e n c y  
t h e c a c w h n g l a n g l e s a r e m a t u r e d t h e  
b a c f i g u r e s a n e l l i p e A t r a i g h t l i n e w i t h a  
p o s i t i v e l p e i m p l i t h a t t h t w w m a r e i n  
p h a s e o n l e a d t h e r t h e c a t h d e r a y l a m  
t r i l a k m n e d r e c t i n l e f e t r a l e a  
m a m u m n t h e o t h e a n d t h e r a y t r a c a n l i g

I f t h e a m p l i f e r a e a d j u t e d s t h a t t h e l i z n  
t a l a m p l i t u d e i s q u a l t t h e r t a l a m p l i t u d e t h e  
l o p e o f t h e s t a i g h t l i n e f r i n p l a c e s i g n l i  
45 T h e e l l i p s e w i d n t o a c i r l w h e n t h e p l a  
a n g l e i s 90 I n t e r m e d i t e a l u e s a e i n d c a t l i l y  
t h e f r m l a

$$\tan \phi = \frac{b}{a}$$

w h e c h i t h e p l a c e a n g l e u g h t b i t l w i t h  
f t h e e l l i p s e a d a i t s l e n g t h S e e L a A d d i t  
F I G U R E S O C I L L O S C O P E C A T H O D E R A Y

A t h e m e t h d f u t l i z n g n w e l l c p l e  
e l p e d t h t u t m a y l a l l t r t e d t h e f l  
l o w m n d r a t i o s I f a s i g n a l i s a p p l i e d a c r s

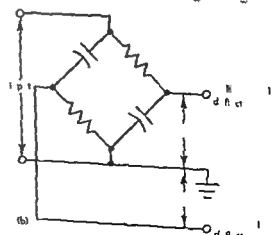
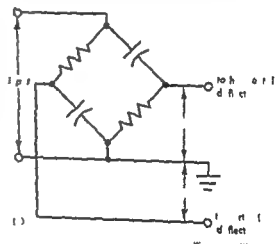


Fig 3 B u t f o m v i g s p h g l w t h  
f p f C l k w f w p g  
t d (b) C t l k w c l w p g t d

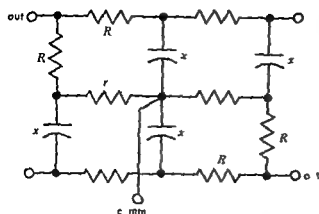


Fig 4 Actual circuit for measuring phase angle with an oscilloscope

the input of the bridge circuit shown in Fig 3a the output voltages  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  will be 90° apart and if  $r$  equals  $x$  (equals  $1/2 - f/C$ ) they will be equal in amplitude. Now if  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  are applied to the vertical and horizontal amplifiers of an oscilloscope the resulting trace will be a circle. If  $r$  and  $x$  are interchanged as in Fig 3b the trace will again be a circle but the spot will trace the circle in the opposite direction.

If these two circuits are combined so that the sums of the outputs are applied the spot cannot go around the circles in opposite directions at the same time and it will trace a straight line instead. As the phase of one voltage is advanced say by the angle  $\Delta\theta$  the straight line will rotate on the screen through the angle  $2\Delta\theta$ . A scale can be marked on the screen and either end of the straight line used for reference. The presence of harmonic and slight errors in the  $r = x$  relationship or in the equality of the input voltages will cause the line to open into a narrow ellipse. The slope of the major axis of the ellipse in this case is used for the slope of the straight line. Figure 4 shows a working circuit. It is built so that  $r = x$  at the operating frequency and  $R$  is several times so that the voltages are added without appreciable loading of the bridge circuits.

**Electronic switch** An electronic switch can be used with an oscilloscope as a phase angle meter. The switch permits the oscilloscope to display first one voltage and then the other. If the linear sweep is at the same frequency as the waves being compared the two waves will be superimposed on the screen. The phase difference and the period can be measured on the screen in inches, the ratio giving the phase angle as a fraction of 360°.

**Phase order indicators** These devices are used to indicate which phase voltage of a polyphase circuit leads or lags another. If the voltage vectors of a three-phase generator are as indicated in Fig 5a the voltage from neutral to line 2 reaches a maximum  $1/3$  cycle (or period) after the voltage of line 1 and  $1/3$  cycle before the voltage of line 3. The voltage of phase 2 lags that of phase 1 and leads that of phase 3. The phase order or phase sequence is then said to be 1-2-3.

Relative motion between the armature conductors and the magnetic field induces the voltage in an alternator. Therefore if the alternator were rotated in the opposite direction the order in which the phase voltages reached maximum would be reversed. The phase sequence would be 1-3-2 as shown in Fig 5b.

A miniature three-phase motor designed to rotate clockwise when connected to a three-phase system possessing a phase sequence 1-2-3 is used as a phase-sequence indicator. Counterclockwise rotation would indicate a 1-3-2 phase sequence.

A common type of phase order indicator consists of an inductance and two lamps connected in Y to the three-phase line as in Fig 6a. If we assume that the inductive reactance is very high the common connection on the Y is at a voltage nearly equal to the midpoint of line 2-3 in Fig 6b and c. The voltage across the reactor is  $V_L$  and the current lags by 90° and lies on  $n2$  in Fig 6b and on  $n3$  in Fig 6c. This current divides part going through each lamp. The result is to increase the current in lamp 2 when the phase sequence is 1-2-3 and to increase the current in lamp 3 when the phase sequence is 1-3-2.

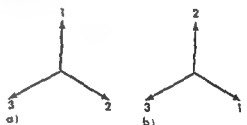


Fig 5 Phase sequence (a) Sequence 1-2-3 (b) Sequence 1-3-2

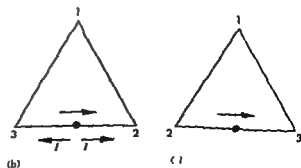
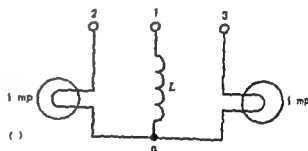


Fig 6 Phase sequence indicator (a) Circuit diagram (b) Vector diagram for sequence 1-2-3 (c) Vector diagram for sequence 1-3-2

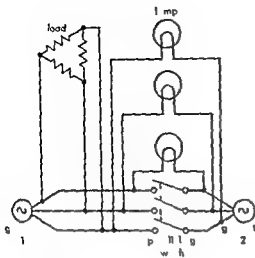


Fig 7 P l l g d g t with f t l dy u d i d

**Phase relation indicators** The d ces a e f i d at t m t n t h n t g e a t f a l t i n g l i a e e j l w i t n the l f t w l t g e s e a h m a m m a t t h e m t m t h n p h e W h n t w a t b n t d p l i e t h v h l d h e t h e m l t f e q n n d p h A l t m t e d r h m t a h e d t n d i a t e w h n t h e l g n d f e q n n a a q u a l The p h a l t n b t w t h e t w o u e a h w n b y m f i p h a g l m p b y m f v n c h r o p h

The l m p p l d a t h p w t t u d t p a a l l t g e t l l f t e f f c t o d t n p h a e c n d t i F 7) D e p d p n t h e l t i e p h f i s h t o m a l t h l m p l i a f m t h m t t h e d f f n f t h e m h l a g A t h t w f e q n p p h n t h t h l m p f i c h e h i f f m f l l b g h t i d m t a d c g a t l f t h t f q a e q l t h l a m p w l l m t n a f d b l l a l i j l t m g m h n t t h a l g h l l g h e f q y o t h t u l l t k p m l d t h e t h b n d d e n i l d i t e m A t h l m p l w h y g t h t h d m p h t h w i t h l d t g t m h t t h t e m

**Synchronizer or synchroscope** Th i a a a f t h T m p h m t Th n t t h f v d t l p p l c d b m a l n t h t a t h m b l d l a p p l e d b y t h t h m h l f t h t w m h t h r o m t h t f q a q l a d t h e c d l i l l t k p t d p n d p t h i t p h a g l e l f t h f q y f c m h l h i l l i h e t h p h w l l n t t d d t h i l l t i a d t d e t m d t l t h i f t d t o o l w o t t l t C l l t h m h g l g h t h g h p e d d t d t t h l h i l h p p n t d f i p t h

ma k See FLY THICAL MFA IREMENTS LOWER FACTOR AFTER WATERMETER [110] Bibliography C R Lartridge Principles of Elect n Instruments 198 M B St ut Basic El et cal M a u r m n t s 19 (

## Phase modulation detector

A d c f r the d e t e c t i n l p l a e m d l i s t e d a d m a l P h a e m d f i t e d s i g n a l m l e d t e c t e d n a m a n e r i d n t c l t t h a t i d w i t h f r e q u e n c y m o d u l a t e d g a l l e a n t h e c i n t i d f f e r e n c e b e t w e e n t h e f r m f m l l t u H w e r l c a e t h e m l s t a n d i n d x r i d f f e r e n t l y w i t m l l t f r j n y f r e q n e m d l a t n d e t e c t e d t f m f f i l y t h e a d d i t n f l w p n t r k s w i t t h e m p l t d e t m a d e t a r y n e r l y w i t t h m l l t n f r e q u e n c y W i t h t h a d d i t n a n y f e q u e n c y m o d u l a t d t e c t u a n l e m d i g e r a t a t i f t l v f r t l e d m o d l a t f p h a e m l l a t e d w a S e F r e q u e n c y m o d u l a t i o n d e t e c t o r

T d e m o d u l a t e p h a m o d u l a t e d w a y w i t t a m p l i t u d e t r t h s i g n a l d r i f f r m a f r e q u e n c y m o d u l a t i o n d e t e c t o r m t l c r e c t e d l p n g t h e t r a n s m i t t e r g l a w p f i l t e r i n h h t h t p t i t r l p r p t i a l t t h m d l t u n f r e q u e n c y I f f e a m p l e t t s d e r i d t h d i e a l a d d i t h f 50 20 000 c y l p e r d 400 t l d f f r e m t r s m i t l e a p p l i e d b y t h e r e c t i n e t w k T h l a g d f f e r e n c e i s i g n i f i c a n t l e n g t h i d i f f e r e n c e i s t a s f m a l l m a l d e t e r i t u t w i t t h e r e c t i n e t w k d t i n a d t h e r n e

I n t n p h a e m d u l a t i o n m m n i t i y a t m t h e d i f f u l t y j u t m a t t n e d i p a r t i l l y l m n t d i l y m p l i n g t a n m a t t e r p e m p h a s t h a t d e a g t h d e g r e e o f m o d u l a t i o n t h e l g h r m d u l a t n f r e q u e n c y I f i d t l e r f t h e p m p h e t w k m t l e m p l e d a t t h e d e t e c t o r a d d i t n t t h e r e c t i n e t w k m t n d S D i r e c t o r [F L C]

## Pheasant

A y f m a y f w i l l k e l d s o f t h f a m i l y P h a n d p r i m a r i l y c r e a t i n g i n a s t i l e t e r n a l i s w i t h a m a b u t u f u l p e c i a t i t i s t a t C h n T b t B m a a n d t h M l a y P e u l a P h n t a r e h r a c t e d l i t k r g p l m a g l g t l p u d l e g n d t h e i n e



Th g k d p h t P h l h l e g h t 3 f t i f m e l p l m f l d b x F N I T H t r y M G w H H 1949)

of feathers on the sides of the head They eat grain weed seeds berries insects and snails Pheasants have been raised by man for many centuries first reaching western Europe through introduction by the Romans

The ring necked pheasant *Phasianus colchicus* has been repeatedly introduced into the United States and has become well established over a wide area of the northern United States and southern Canada where it ranks as a major game bird See GALLIFORMES [J D B]

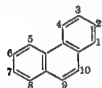
## Phenacetin

One of a general class of medicinals known variously as analgesics antifebrins or antipyretics of which acetanilide is the best known Phenacetin is an acetyl derivative of p phenetidine It is made by the reaction of  $\text{NaO}-\text{C}_6\text{H}_4-\text{NO}_2$  with  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{Cl}$  to

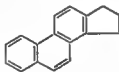
form  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{O}-\text{C}_6\text{H}_4-\text{NO}$  which is reduced to the corresponding amine and acetylated to form phenacetin  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{O}-\text{C}_6\text{H}_4-\text{NHCOCH}_3$  The reaction is continued as a cyclic process in which phenol acetic acid and ethyl chloride are continuously applied Phenacetin is less toxic than acetanilide but it lowers the ability of blood to combine with oxygen See ASPIRIN HYPOTHERMIA [A L H]

## Phenanthrene

A colorless crystalline hydrocarbon ( $\text{C}_{14}\text{H}_{10}$ ) which melts at about  $100^\circ\text{C}$  and boils at  $332^\circ\text{C}$  Phenanthrene is usually obtained from coal tar



Phenanthrene



1,2-Cyclopentenophenanthrene

but it may also be produced by the hydrogenation of coal Since carbazole and anthracene (usually present in crude phenanthrene) form mixed crystals with it commercial grades of phenanthrene usually melt at higher temperatures than the pure compound

Phenanthrene may be hydrogenated in the presence of copper chromite to yield 9,10-dihydrophenanthrene or it may be oxidized to yield 9,10-phenanthrenequinone In general substitution reactions yield a mixture of products which are difficult to separate

Phenanthrene has little commercial importance It is of interest because the nucleus is found in some resins in acids and is produced by the degradation of certain alkaloids Reduction products of 1,2-cyclopentenophenanthrene may be regarded as forming the skeleton of the steroids See AROMATIC HYDROCARBON POLYNUCLEAR HYDROCARBON STEROL [C K B]

## Phenocopies

Nonhereditary variations of form or function resembling mutant trait but caused by external conditions during development They occur presumably in all types of organism spontaneously or after experimental intervention Present knowledge of phenocopies is derived chiefly from work on *Drosophila melanogaster* and chicken embryo

In hereditary (dominant or recessive) rumplessness in the chicken as well as in the insulin-produced phenocopies the abnormalities vary from complete absence of all tail vertebrae to conditions deviating only slightly from the normal one The specimens shown in the figure are of different ages and sizes but illustrate an intermediate condition with abnormal and fused tail vertebrae The intermediate conditions are caused by the presence of modifying genes which prevent the mutant genes or the phenocopy inducing agent from exerting their full force Developmental studies have shown that the insulin-induced phenocopy is more closely akin to recessive than to dominant rumplessness

The phenocopy producing agents may be physical for example heat shocks x-ray or chemical agents The principal response determining factors are the developmental stage at exposure the force of external agent and the genetic constitution of responding organism Unrelated phenocopies may be produced in different stages by the same agent and by different agents in the same stage The force or dosage of the external agent is chiefly a source

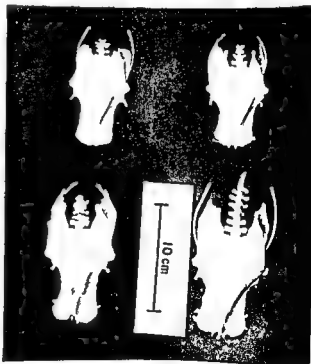
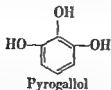


Fig. 1. Phenocopies of rumplessness in the chicken. (top left) normal embryo with dominant mutation; (top right) embryo with recessive mutation; (bottom left) embryo with intermediate condition; (bottom right) embryo with intermediate condition. Scale bar = 10 cm.



Phenols whose structures contain more than one hydroxyl group bound to an aromatic ring system are called polyhydric phenols. Examples are catechol, resorcinol, and hydroquinone. All dihydric phenols. Pyrogallol, a trihydric phenol, is a photographic developer. Phenols in which one or more

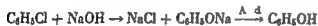


hydroxyl groups are joined directly to an aromatic system comprising two rings of carbon atoms are represented by the naphthols. See NAPHTHOL.

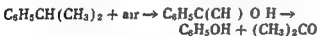
**Production.** Phenol is produced by four competing processes. (1) The benzenesulfonate process involves the sulfonation of benzene by concentrated sulfuric acid and then fusion of the sodium benzenesulfonate with caustic soda:



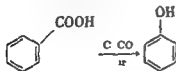
(2) In the chlorobenzene (Dow) process chlorobenzene is treated with caustic soda in the presence of copper at elevated temperatures and pressures:



(3) In the Raschig process benzene is first converted to chlorobenzene by hydrochloric acid and air in the presence of a catalyst and then the phenol is formed from chlorobenzene and water in the presence of another catalyst. (4) In the cumene peroxidation process cumene hydroperoxide formed by the action of air on cumene is converted by sulfuric acid into phenol and acetone:

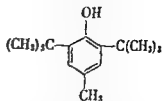
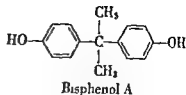


A more recent process consists of heating benzoic acid in air in the presence of copper carbonate:



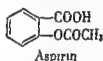
Less than 5% of the phenol now manufactured in this country is obtained directly from coal tar. More complex phenols are prepared from phenol itself or by the adaptation of one of the methods used to prepare phenol to appropriately constituted aromatic compounds.

**Complex phenols.** Bisphenol A is made from phenol and acetone and is an intermediate in the preparation of epoxy resins. 2,6-Di-*tert*-butyl-4-methylphenol, made from *p*-cresol and isobutylene and is used to protect gasoline oils, rubber and foams from deterioration caused by atmospheric oxygen. Pentachlorophenol is used to protect wood against attack by fungi and termites. Its sodium salt is used to treat industrial waste water.

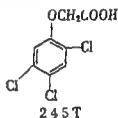
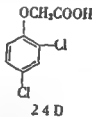


2,6-Di-*tert*-butyl-4-methylphenol

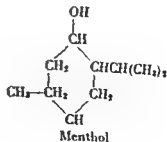
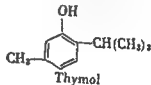
vent the growth of slime and algae. Salicylic acid is an intermediate from which aspirin and other analgesic drugs are made. 2,4-Dichlorophenol and



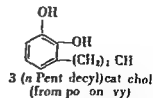
2,4,5-trichlorophenol are intermediates in the manufacture of the weed killers 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2,4-D) and 2,4,5-trichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2,4,5-T) which are usually used as their salts or esters:



Some phenols occur in natural products. For example, thymol from thyme oil is used in dilute solution as an antiseptic and as an intermediate from which menthol is prepared. The toxic agent



in poison ivy are related to catechol, one of them



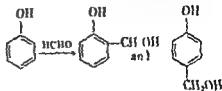
3-( 1,3,5-trihydroxybenzyl )catechol See PARA AMINOPHENOL CATECHOL CRESOL HYDROQUINONE PICRIC ACID RESORCINOL

[R.B.C.]

# Phenol formaldehyde resin

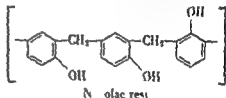
One of the condensation products of phenol or phenol condensed with aldehyde such as formaldehyde or furfural. The term phenol is sometimes used to refer to the whole group of products. The phenol formaldehyde resin was developed commercially between 190 and 1910 was the first truly synthetic polymer. It is a solid material for electrical insulation, moldings, and many other applications. They are characterized by low electrical strength and resistance to aging. Phenol is prepared by the direct oxidation of benzene by the hydrolysis of chlorobenzene or by the alkalifusion of sodium benzosulfonate.

with the methyl group in the ortho and para positions



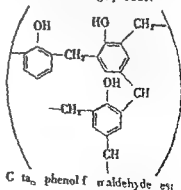
1,3,5-trihydroxybenzyl phenol

The methyl phenols are little soluble materials which are generally called the A stage resin. In the presence of acid and less than 0.86 moles of formaldehyde per mole of phenol the primary alcohol reacts to yield diphenylmethane polymers called novolacs which are soluble and fusible and contain 4-70 phenol units.



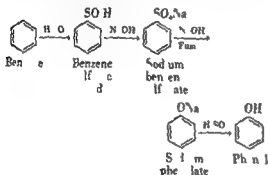
By further heating of the A stage resin or by the addition of more formaldehyde the novolac further condensation takes place with the elimination of the B stage product a brittle solid that is partially soluble and fusible.

In the production of phenol resin molding composition the novolac is ammoniated in a strainer, concentrated and dried. The B stage resin is mixed with fillers and curing agents and then compacted into the final product. The curing agent is hexamethylenetetramine which at the temperature of molding reacts with water to form formaldehyde and ammonia. In the presence of ammonia and the addition of formaldehyde the B stage resin cures to form a highly cross-linked insoluble and infusible C stage product.

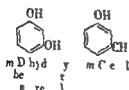


C stage phenol formaldehyde resin

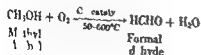
By using phenol and cresols as a resin, a better product is obtained. The curing agent is hexamethylenetetramine. The curing agent is hexamethylenetetramine. The curing agent is hexamethylenetetramine.



Resin is obtained by the alkalifusion of benzenesulfonic acid and sodium hydroxide.



Formaldehyde is produced by the oxidation of methanol.



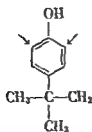
and formaldehyde is obtained by the hydrolysis of formalin.



Polymerization of the phenol and formaldehyde reaction to form a polymer is described.



able for reaction (disfunctional)



oil soluble thermoplastic resins are formed instead of the cross-linked materials obtained from the trifunctional phenols just discussed. The products being somewhat more expensive than the ordinary phenolic resin are used in special paint varnish and adhesive formulations.

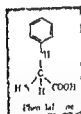
With the use of furfural instead of formaldehyde the II tage re in has the unique property of remaining thermoplastic for a relatively long time. The phenol furfural compositions are useful for molding large complex forms in which extra time is needed for the resin to fill the mold completely.

**Fabrication and use** Phenolic resins can be cast from syrupy intermediates that are cured by heating. Laminated products can be produced by impregnating fiber cloth, wood and other materials with the resin. After heating, laminated sheets can be pressed into any shape desired. Most of the phenolic plastics can be machined if necessary.

Cured phenolic plastics are rigid hard and resistant to chemicals (except strong alkali) and to heat.

Some of the uses for phenolic resins are for making precisely molded articles such as telephone parts strong and durable laminated boards or for impregnating fabrics wood or paper Phenolic resins are also widely used as adhesive as the binder for grinding wheels as ion exchange resin and in paints and varnishes See ADHESIVE PHENOL PLASTICS FABRICATION POLYMERIZATION TEXTILE CHEMISTRY [J A M L M H]

## Phenylalanine



Py | -ant f h 2  
| h (COOH) 283 ph ( H ) 913  
f orle pr S IP  
I } (H O) -35 { } ( % C) -45  
I I (f )00ml H O) 9  
Alcohol per cum pe k 60 ( ? let)

An amino acid considered essential for normal growth of animals. The amino acids are characterized physically by the following: (1) the  $pK$  or the dissociation constant of the various titratable groups (2) the isoelectric point or  $pH$  at which a dipolar ion does not migrate in an electric field (3) the optical rotation or the rotation imparted to a beam of plane-polarized light (frequently the  $D$  line of the sodium spectrum) passing through 1 decimeter of a solution of 100 grams in 100 ml (4) solubility (5) absorption spectrum or the wavelength at which maximum absorption occurs. See EQUILIBRIUM IONIC ISOELECTRIC

## POINT OPTICAL ACTIVITY SPECTROPHOTOMETRIC ANALYSIS

Dietary phenylalanine is the source of tyrosine in animal tissues. Phenylalanine originates biosynthetically from phosphoenolpyruvic acid and erythrose 4 phosphate by way of shikimic acid and prephenic acid (see AMINO ACIDS).

During metabolic degradation the major pathway in mammals is by oxidation to tyrosine which is then degraded to fumarate and acetoacetate (see TYROSINE). Phenylalanine also can be desaminated to phenylpyruvic acid of which three metabolic products are known: benzoic acid, phenylacetic acid and phenyllactic acid. [E A D]

### Phenylpyruvic oligophrenia

A type of mental deficiency caused by an inherited defect in protein metabolism specifically the metabolism of phenylalanine (see PROTEIN). It is also known as phenylketonuria. The condition is rare with an incidence of 1 in 25 000 in the general population and 3 in 2300 mental defectives. However research has created the possibility of preventing some types of mental deficiency caused by mutant genes through medical identification of genetic factor in the parents (see HUMAN GENETICS).

Phenylpyruvic mental deficiency is identified by the presence of phenylpyruvic acid in the urine. The addition of a 5% solution of ferric chloride to the urine causes the formation of a characteristic deep green color in the presence of the acid. Post mortem examination of affected case disclosed absence of the liver enzyme responsible for the metabolism of phenylalanine in normal persons (see ENZYME). The concentration of unmetabolized phenylalanine is associated with diminution of activity in the higher mental center and in permanent intellectual retardation.

It is possible to alter the amount of the excretion of such abnormal metabolites by altering the amount of phenylalanine in the diet. Phenylalanine-free diets have been developed and their efficacy is under study. There are some indications that if diet control can be applied in early infancy, damage to the nervous system can be halted and a more normal mental status anticipated.

The mental defects of this type usually blond with blue eye fair skin signs of eczema and a typical musty odor of the urine. Frequent bizarre behavior reaction in lying withdrawal fright reaction negative if pointers are common in me case. They are generally how were mental retardation although classically they may be classified as mental. They rarely benefit from special education in the public school or from residential facilities.

From the point of view of genetics, the mutation is detected as a single mutant gene and follows a typical calceol pattern of inheritance. It is estimated that the gene exists as a recessive in 173 in the general population. The parents are apparently normal heterozygotes with no overt physical evidence of the disease while the proband is

h m zygote with by u m n t l defic y d  
the m led s gn of an aln rual ub t nec in th  
u ne Rec t tude of tl hete zyg js pa nt  
ha d m n t ated abno m l phenylal na toler  
anc curv Th all ws the p b lity f pre-  
d ct g the ex t nc f the re e m ne a d the  
poble c ur ce f a h m zyg te ff prng  
S h a techn q mav p de a o cret ba f r  
med cal d which wll pot t uch pot nt al  
pa ent f m r pr du g and th s re lue the m  
denc f the d e i the ge l p pulat n  
S MENTAL DEFICIT CV [MCKA]

## Phlebitis

An i f f m m t n of the wall f a i usually as  
s sed with a l t format n o th mbo i th  
l l i m th mbo s of tw mai types  
phl b th mbs w tho t nss m m n and throm  
b phl b th wh re nss m m n i l d The  
caus e e not c m p l tely unde stood ne rthe  
f l d i g i f a t r n lude blood sta s  
n p l n d d e t t u d e r t o n ard ac  
f l u r b e s t y v a i o t e s d i s t i n s f a  
l a l r y t m n t r A a t h o m b u s f o r m e d  
n m l t e w h a t t h e g u e p o r t n m a y b e a k f  
t b m m b l Th m b o l m a y l o d g e t h e  
l g w i t h a t a t p h r l i s  
l m e a f m a t f i t h o m b p r d c e  
a f f m a t v e t o n f t h e a d j a c e t  
a l l f f l r y m l a t e l i t n e a  
t b l h d a l y t m a y l e v t h e o g t i n a n d  
l l d a g e f h l o d f m t h f t d r e i n  
t h b e o f n u d i g e s e f f e c t m y  
n e n l d n f n t e d m l e r a d  
g g n e s C i r c u l a t i o n E m b o l i s C a v  
e v e P l e p T h r o m b o s i s

O c c u r r i n g p h l b i t i s m v d e l p w t h o t a  
p e r e d g t h m b s w h e t u l e t o n  
p d r t a f f m m t n s f m t h l b t  
f t e n d i t a l t s b t h b l o o d l a l l a d  
t h e l i n f f m m t n o d e t i n f i t h  
s l e m m l a d t h e m t u r n  
t p e r p i n f e t i n t h e f o r m t n o f  
t e n t h e t b l h g e u s c y c l e o f  
t a t m b a d f f m m t i o n F l d l y  
d d u l e e p i l l y p t b l t o p h b t h  
a f t h f q n s f p u l m p i d i  
M h f i t i f y t f r l t h p l l i t n d  
l a m p e l f l a m m t o c a t e d w i t h m e  
r m n e [E G S T]

## Phlebotomus fever

A m l d e t b o r n e u d e o c c u r r i n g m  
m l M d i r e a c e t d R u  
C l d l a d i s i t k n w a d d i f f e v e  
T l l r m y d e t A t g n  
l i h p t t a f f p d b e i f a  
i d m n t i d  
A f t h l r f n n f t d f m l P h l b t m a  
p p t i d p a t i d h p l d h m l  
j i t n e p i t f f n s A l l m  
t t r e C l d g o m b o n f i r m e d  
l i d i b l o o d

In e n d e m c a r a i m m u n i t y i n f e c t i o n s a r e a c  
q u i r e d l y m t c h i l d r e n O u t b r e a k o c c a s i o n a l l y  
m a t k e n f o r m a l a r i a o c c u r w h e n u c e p t i l  
a d u l t i h a s m i l i t a r y t r o o p e n t e r a n e n d e m  
a r a P r e n t i o n i b c n t r l f i t h c t r S e  
A N I M A L V I R U S [J L W]

B i b l o g r a p h y T M R i v e r s a n d F I H e r s h e l l  
J r ( e d ) I h a d a n d R i c k e t t s I n f e c t i o n s o f M a n  
3 d e d 1959

## Phloem

The c h e f f o o d c o n d u c t i n g t i s s e i n v a l a r  
p l a n t I t c o n d u c t i n g c e l l s a r e k n o w n a s s e e e l e m e n t s  
b t p h l e m m a y a l o i n c l u d e c o m p a n i o n  
c e l l s p a r e n c h y m a c e l l f l e r s c l e r e d r a y a n d  
e r i a n o t h e r c e l l s P h l e m i s p a r t i a l l y c a t e d  
w t h x y l e m a n d t h e t w i g e t h e r f o r m t h e a c u l a r  
y t e m M h l e s s i s k n w n f p h l e m t h a n f x y  
l m p a t i l y b e c a u s e o f i t l e s e r d i r e c t e c o n o m i c  
i m p o r t a n c e a n d p a r t l y b e c a u s e t h e s e e l e m e n t s  
f u n c t i o n f r a h r t i m ( c o m m n l y o n s e a n )  
a n d t h e n u n d e r g o m a k e d t r u c t u r a l a d f e c t i n g  
c h a n g e s i n l i n g r i h n g a n d i n w o o d y p l a n t  
a l u g t n g o f f a r e s u l t o f p e r i d e r m f r m t n  
( s e e P e r i d e r m ) F u r t h e r t h e d e v e l o p m e n t o f  
p h l m m o c o m p l e t e t h a n t h a t f i t h x y l e m a n d  
r i a b l e i n f o r m a t i o n i n t h e r e g a d s s a n t i

S i e v e e l e m e n t s S i e v e e l e m e n t s d i f f e r f r m p  
r e c h y m a c e l l i n t h e s t r u c t u r e f t h r w a l l a n d i n  
t h e u n q u e h a r a t e r o f t h e r p o t p l t ( s e e C r u c  
P R O T O P L A S T I A R F C I R C U L A ) S e a r e a d i t i o n  
t u e a t t u c t u r e s i n s e e e l e m e n t w l l a r e s p e c i a l  
i z e d p r i m a r y p u t f i e l d i n w h i c h t h e p l a m d m a t a  
( s e e t r d s f e c t o p l a m ) b e c o m e l a r g e d a  
c o n n e c t i n g t a n d s d n e d i n e l n g a t e c a l l o  
c l l r ( t g l ) T h e w l l o f e l e m t i t e n  
e e i n t h k n e b y t h e d e p o s i t n f t h e s o  
c a l l e d n a c o u t h c k e i n g T h e p r o t p l t o f a  
y u g m m a t e s i e e l e m e t n o t h e d t i n  
g u i d e d f m t h a t f a t y p i c a l p r o c h y m a c e l l f  
t h s a m e a g e I n t h e c e f d e v e l o p m e n t i n t o a  
f u n t i n g e l e m e n t h w e r e s e r v e d s  
t u t c l a g s m S i m e l l e s f e q u e n t l y a p  
p e r a n d i t f u e t a m o p h y m a s o f  
a l u m t h n u c l e i s d i s t i g t ( l i t h u g h t h e n u  
c l e i s m a y c p a n d e t a i n i t s d n t y ) t h e  
b o u n d r y b t w e n t h p r o t o p l a m a n d t h a c e l l e  
b m i d t n t n d t h e p r o t o p l m e n t a l l y  
b e m v t a l l y u t a n a b l e b y r d n a y l o  
l o g a l d y e P l a d r d u c i n g a b h y d r a t e o f  
p u l a h r a t e m a y b e p r e e n t O r m o r o f  
t h e s e f a t u r e m a y l e b s e t f r m t h e s e e l e m  
m n t t h l f a l u a t h m a t e m m n s e a

A a e e l e m e n t s b o m n o n f n e t n g i n  
o n t n t s d i n t e g r a t e T h c l l f i r t i n r e a s i n  
m u n t n d t h e n d i p p e a s a l n g w i t h t h e c o n  
u g t a n d l e a i g e m p t y p a n t h w a l l  
T h e l m n t b e m e s f i l l e d w i t h d m a y b e  
c u s h d l a t e b y l r g m n t o f r u n l i g p a  
c y m a c e l l

S i e v e c e l l s a n d s i e v e t u b e m e m b e r s T y p c a l  
e r H l g f m e n t s a w h i h a l l t h e v e  
r a e f q u a l s p e c i a l i t o n t h e g h e e

areas may be more numerous in some walls than in others. In contrast a sieve tube member has some sieve areas more specialized than others that is

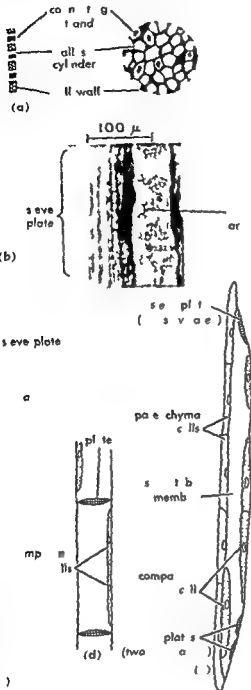


Fig 1 (a) Part of sieve plate surface view showing connecting strand and callose cylinder (b) Photomicrograph of radial section of part of the secondary phloem of *Amelanchier alnifolia* (Plate 1000 of USDA) showing the sieve plates of sieve tubes (c) Oblique plates with sieve areas (d) Longitudinal section of a sieve tube member showing sieve plates and companion cells (1000 of USDA)

the pore connecting strand and callose cylinders are larger in some sieve areas. Parts of the wall containing such sieve areas are called sieve plates. Simple sieve plates have one specialized sieve area that generally occurs on a transverse end wall. Compound sieve plates have two or more on an oblique end wall. Sieve tubes are composed of an indeterminate number of sieve tube members arranged end to end. Thus sieve tubes are to the phloem what vessels are to the xylem. Sieve tube members are shorter than sieve cells and become progressively more so with evolutionary change. See XYLEM.

**Companion cells** Companion cells are specialized parenchyma cells that occur in close ontogenetic and physiologic association with sieve tube members. They arise from the same meristematic cell that produces the sieve tube member and vary in size, position, and number but always retain their nucleus. Some sieve tube members lack companion cells. The precise functional relationship between the two kinds of cells is unknown, but they become nonfunctioning simultaneously.

**Parenchyma cells** Parenchyma cells in the phloem are thin or somewhat thick walled and occur singly or in strands of two or more cells. They store starch frequently contain tannins or crystals commonly enlarge as the sieve elements become obliterated or may be transformed into clerod or cork cambium cells. Parenchyma cells in secondary phloem may arise from a meristematic cell (phloem initial) producing only such cells or from one that also eventually produces one or more sieve tube members and companion cells. Parenchyma cells seem to intergrade with companion cells in the angiosperms.

**Fibers** Phloem fibers vary greatly in length (from a fraction of a millimeter in some plants to 1/4 meter in the ramie plant). The secondary wall is commonly thick and typically has simple pits.

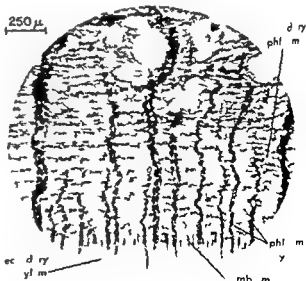


Fig 2 Photomicrograph of a section of the secondary phloem of *Populus balsamifera* (Plate 1000 of USDA) showing the cambial region and phloem elements (1000 of USDA)

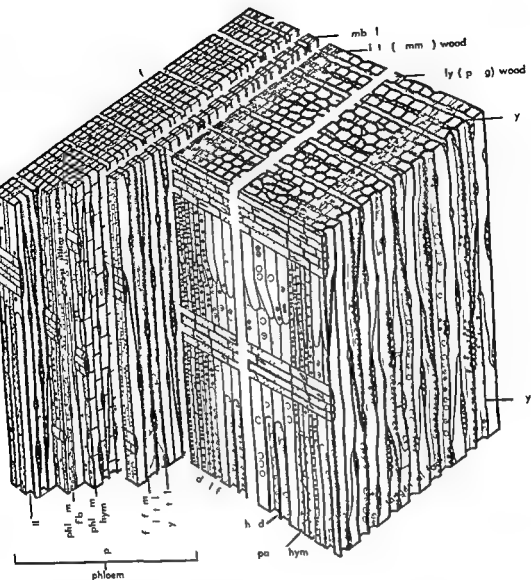


Fig 3 ■ k d g m f th d ry xyl m m (gym g m) Th l (whit d l) (C r t y f l W b l) k d d ry phl m f th f B l y)

b t m y m y t b l g n f e d l e d r y  
phl m s m e f i b d t s e l g h b e  
y d t h e f t h p m d b t t h m a y  
l g t t e l y b y p l t r g w t h f  
p m r y phl m m m t f i b l n g t m e  
t m h d e d f t m e s t h g l l g h  
Th f i b m y b e m p t t f q t l y m u l  
t l t d m y t g d t h l d (

SCLE CHYMA)

Primary phloem P m r y phl m d f f e t t  
f m d t e s f t h p l m t m (s M E R I  
r A P I C L) Th l t p m y phl m (p o  
t phl m l t h f l l m t w t h  
w t h t m p l l d p h m l l  
Th e l m t f t f b f t m d  
t h b l t t e d T h m g y l l m b  
m l l h y m t a m y l b  
t f m d t l p t phl m f i b f t  
e o l y l l d p y l f i b e ( C O L L E

CHY SA PERICYCL) Met phloem is f med fte  
g w t h l g t h f u d g c l l s s c m p l t e d  
S e l m e t m p e l l (i n a g p m s)  
d p a e h m a l l c h p h l m b t  
t y p c l f i b e e g e r a l l y l a c k i n g (s A C I O  
S E R M) I f d a r y p h l e m a l t t h m t  
a p h l m f c t t h g h t t h e l i f e f t h p l t

Secondary phloem S d y phl m p

d e d b y t h m l m l m t h t f m  
n d y v l m (e M E R T E L A T F L) S c h  
p h l m t f t w t e p n e t t g y t e m  
t h t l l a d h t l y (F g 2)  
Th p h l m y b a l l i m l a t y l e m  
y b u t t h c m p t l l d f e n t y p l l y  
l k g e c d r y w l l M e o t h g t h f  
t h t m o o t i c t h l d e p h l m a y  
l l w d t h d m y d d e d l l  
Th d l t u d n t l l p h l e m y  
b t t s m m n f t m f d y p h l m

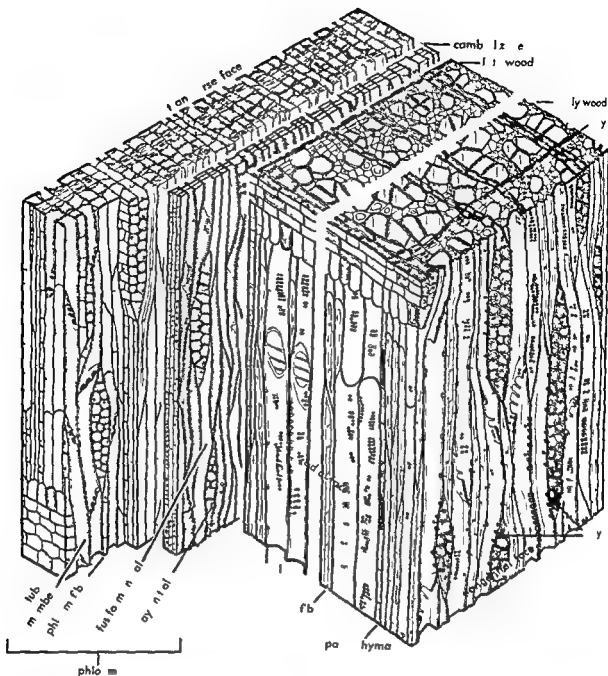


Fig 4 Block diagram of secondary xylem cambial zone and secondary phloem of the dicotyledon

(angiosperm) L. J. van der Pijl (1961) (Courtesy of I. W. Bailey)

and stops only at the time of periderm formation within the ray. The vertical system contains sieve elements, parenchyma, often fibers or sclereids and infrequently other elements such as laticifers (see SECRETORY STRUCTURES PLANT). The fiber may occur singly in dispersed groups or in tangential bands.

**Phloem of conifers.** The secondary phloem consists of long sieve tube parenchyma cells and frequently of fibers (Fig 3). The sieve tube cells may be arranged in regularly alternating bands that give an orderly appearance to the phloem as seen in trans section (see CONIFERALES).

**Phloem of dicotyledons.** The phloem in dicotyledons (Fig 4) has greater diversity of cell structures and of arrangement than that in the conifer (see DICOTYLEDONAE). It is composed in varying proportion and groupings of sieve tube members,

companion cells, parenchyma cells and often of fiber, sclereids and various other kinds of cells or cell groups such as secretory. The various cells may be arranged in alternating bands and/or have no regular tangential disposition. The functioning phloem is generally more orderly in appearance than the nonfunctioning. This difference results from partial or total collapse of the older sieve elements and associated companion cells and frequently from the concurrent enlargement of neighboring parenchyma cells. **SYTIOLOGY PLANT TISSUE SYSTEMS** [VIC]

**Bibliography.** See PLANT ANATOMY.

## Phlogopite

A mineral of the mica group also called milerite or bronze mica. Its composition is  $K(Mg, Fe(II))_3(Al, Si)_3O_{10}(OH)_2$  including minor amounts of

od um (Na) that b tute so p ta sum (K) and  
c tan g sm l m units of Mn Fe(III) a d T  
With an e e se F (II) t gr de nto l tute  
fr m wh ch th e1 = harp d t net on

Phl g pte s table at h gh r t mpe atu e a d  
h a higher p er fa t r than m m te with  
bo t the am ol t ge br kd wn l t widely u d  
= f t r al m ulato

It u a n d m ated fl k f lated m  
o l r g cry t l The b al clea ge e a y and  
p f t p cti gr ty 28-30 h r d n e s  
25-30 Th l eets a t r par nt m sh d s of  
lght b w d g e Reddish l r w cti ons  
re ch rat t c of l a e ur fa es f t m y be  
ol le t we k l p l c o

Th t r tu s a e m clic ( layer two-  
laye d three-l y r p do h mb hed r l) V ny  
phl g p t d p l y a t e m n t an mitted lght  
b ca e f e t d l e d rutile ne d l

Phl gop te = cura ch fly t c r t a n p e dotit  
(k mb l t) r p e t i e d p idotie m r  
bles d i e d f mmp e d l m l m to and  
r y l r g r y t l f comm re l mpo tan e m  
a gr d p l g o l e patit cal t e p y x ne  
rock f pegmatic affi ty (Ont io a d Que-  
be ) S e M ca SILIC TE MINERALS [E W H]

### Phobic reaction

A t p f u o i Th spe f i f m wh h p h b  
t i t e at l f who i r a  
t al ty th nd i d a f m y eal with t b ng  
b l to d p l th i t H m a v k a e al mo t a s  
d the h m n m n t u o Th ha l t e  
be l b l d t nd th m n t med ally  
c p t b l m m o l g y f r x a m p l e n y to phob  
r m b d f i d k h l ph b f r i  
d z ph b f of a n m l my phob  
f f m nd tam at m cla tr pho-  
b a f a f b g n a f d p a e gor ph b a  
f a f p n pla e hyd ph b a f a r f water  
a d ph l ph b a f e f ph l s Th p e c f i c  
f may b d i r t e y m p t m the  
th l t y d e t p t t e l i d to p t i  
l p y h d y n a m f n d n n d m y u  
l th n the n t e f b r d r p t e f m l d p  
t t n Th o i g f phob r a t a t n d  
t be q u t r d m t m s they m i t a  
g n r l d i a f a c l a f b j t o member  
f h h t l l y a d p a t i F r e x  
m p l wh h l d s b i t b y a d g i t m y l e a r n  
m b d l y t f l l d m Phob i m t u n a l t  
m m c m p l m b l d d t t d d p l a  
m t wh n f a f e x a l p t m n f a d s to  
f f l l sh p b y e t

Co t r phob i t a e t h n n w f ch  
th pe go o t o h i w y t m t t h d a  
l t d n g m p l h d o n a s f n  
a f t t g a n m a t r y b y f t t f the  
d n g M f t e t h a n t h n t e p h b  
m a e l f d f t g f t h p s d  
t i g h s f t t o w d h e p b l m b t  
t w a d m f g m n t a p r e t n r m  
d p l e d o f t Th d d l n t o f

uch reacti ns often lead to a kind of l ro zation  
of the s f f r r prov d ng a certa n amount of ec  
nd r v g a n th r e l y See ABNORMAL BEHAVIOR  
NEUROSIS [J S B W 15]

### Phoebe

Anv f t r e spec es of flycatcher of the genu  
*Sayornis* all found in the United Stat The ea t  
ern ph e l e *S phoebe* s the b e t kn wn l t n e t  
m ut l e r n Can da thr u g l o u t the United State  
e st of th R c k y M o u n t a n n d u t h t o n r i t h m



Th ph b S y ph b l e g h t 7 1/2 i (F m  
E L P l m F l d b k f Nat al Hist y McG a w  
H 11 1949)

G o r g l t a w i t f u l c a l l n t e o f p l o e b e o r  
p e w i t p h b p e t e d r a n d e r a n d i t s  
h a b i t o f t e t e r n g m t l w a g g i n g w h l l i n g o  
a l w p r h r a d d y d i n g i h i g r a t t l t  
n e s t s u n d e r m a l b r d g n d o t h e r t u e t s  
a t e d a f e w f t f o m t h g u d S e f l y c a t c h e r  
P A S E R I F O M E S P E W F E [J O R]

### Pholidota

A d f m m a l w h h a c l u d e n l y the p a  
m l i a l y a n t e r Th e t g e t h w i t h t h  
a d m e r e l o g p l e d t h e s m e o d e r w i t h  
th S o t h 4 m a n e d n t t t i l a s i n g  
k w l e d g h o w d i t h t h y a r q u e d t n c t F s  
s i p a n g l r p r c t l l y u k n w n a d t h a n  
s t y f t h e g o p t h r f b u e  
Th m l n a e n q u e a m g m m m a l s i n  
t h a t t h a a d n r m o f m l a p p n g  
h o n y c a s e H a i s a e p e s e n t a s p a r t s o f  
t h e b o d e n b t w e n t h e l s s A s a t c p e  
s T e e t h e m y l e t e l y a b t t h k u l l m e l o n  
g t e u d t h t g u e w r m h a p e d m t h e t u e  
t e s T h e a d p t t s f r d t f t e  
m t e s C s p e s a r k n w f m t p l a a  
d A f c a l l r p l e d n t h e g u s M a i S  
f T H E I A P H O L I D O T A F O S S I L S [D O D D]



## International Phonetic Association symbol

meet	u	vel
hit	ɔ	all
hte	t	boot
et	u	foot
et	ʌ	up
k	ə	bo t
afth	ʌ	b d (Ea t n
aporry	ɜ	l d (G l Am n n
		pro ti u)

## Spirant consonants

p	pt	b	lt
t	t	d	d
k	p	g	kp

## Fricative nasals

f	ft	v	t
o	th n	θ	th n
s	see		oo
hed		3	
ht			

## Liquids

m	m	ŋ	ng
---	---	---	----

## Glides

w	w		red
y	yes	l	lt

th t f l i uffi e t to ndi ate alm t ll pronun  
at n th u l g ge A peech utt r  
wit n the s mb l e lled a ph neu  
t pti n

Th l fti on ued the tabl a e rd to  
th l al m thod f p d t fth nds Th  
l es m s be bd d d th v d m y be dif  
f il l fied h ced h t n f m  
the l rd p e n t) o n ed (only the f  
t l f haled p t) Conso nt m y  
le l f id d t th l at n of n r t  
t h a bil b al [p b m w] lab od tal [f ]  
d tal [θ θ] al ol a [t d r l] p l t l [S 3]  
l [k g] a d glott l [ʃ]

A p t nd m y b n l d t a f e  
q p t m wh h h w t r n o f  
g t f q y e alled fo  
m t fth d Th tech q k a v ble  
h h w n t th t n f m t n f o  
m n t f m nd t d i m t l ght n g  
l S SPEE H [st a o]  
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## Phonocardiography

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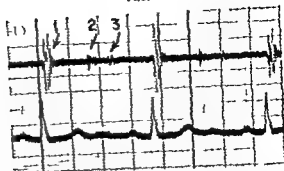


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The e are of low intensity with fundamental frequencies of 40-200 cycles per second (cp) with occasional higher value. Overtones and harmonics can be heard but these are attenuated during sound transmission through body tissues and are usually filtered out by the recording devices. For a

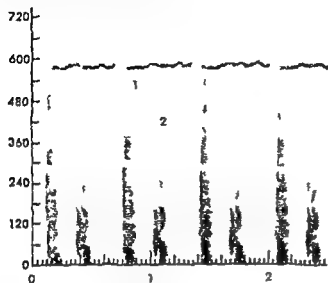


Fig 2 Spectral phonocardiogram. Frequency plot intensity of sound proportional to duration of the tracing. Normal subject. (1) Second region of pulmonary artery. (2) Not splitting of second sound. (F. M. V. McKusick, Cardiac auscultation. Saunders Williams and Wilkins, 1958)

sensation of equal loudness the human ear requires greater energy for low than for high frequency sounds. For this reason almost irrespective of frequency heart noises remain consistently at the lower threshold of hearing (Fig 3). In addition, external noises from the room and street decrease sound perception of low intensity sound and in heart sounds with mixed frequencies the simultaneous presence of relatively loud low frequency components tends to suppress perception of higher frequency. These phenomena are of obvious clinical importance and are termed the masking effect. The characteristics of the human ear are not shared by a microphone-amplifier system. Phonocardiogram therefore cannot be considered faithful graphic reproductions of sound as perceived by a physician through a stethoscope. A logarithmic phonocardiograph has been described which more nearly records the heart sound vibrations as perceived by human subject.

Clinical practice distinguishes heart sounds from heart murmur. Physically they are differentiated only by duration because both are irregular and mixtures of low frequencies and variable intensities. The normal heartbeat is associated with the loud heart sounds occurring at the beginning and at the end of muscular contraction or systole coincident with the closure of the heart valve. In young subjects a third sound of low intensity is commonly heard shortly after the second sound and a fourth sound is occasionally present preceding the first.

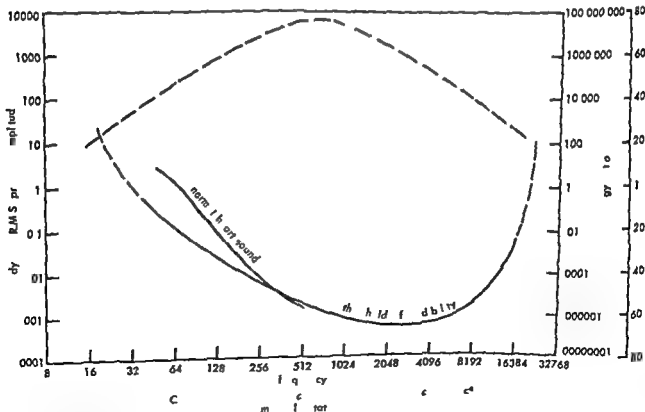


Fig 3 Normal heart sound and the characteristics of hearing. The range of human hearing is indicated by the curved lines with higher sound intensities required at lower than at higher frequencies to give the

sensation of equal loudness. The intensity and pitch of heart sounds always are close to the threshold of audibility. (From H. B. Williams and H. F. Dodge, *Circulation* 19: 38-65, 1926)

sound and related to the contraction of the atria. The additional sound may become accentuated in heart failure at any age and together with the first and second sound may give the appearance of triple or quadruple rhythm known as gallop rhythms. A venous contraction at the ulnar contraction valve arising and extracardiac adhesion may give rise to duplication of heart sounds. Ictus and richness of brief duration. Heart murmurs may occur at the equine systolic blood flow in another normal heart. This is as known as flow murmurs or ejection murmurs. It may be associated with aortic and other structural intracardiac defects. The technique of manual auscultation supplemented by phonocardiography is concerned with determining pitch (frequency) intensity time of duration and maximum as a function of sound and murmurs with specific transmissional changes with regard to the heart.

The physical basis for the origin of the sounds of the murmur is the lag of pulsation. In a closed fluid compartment such as the ventricle, the kinetic energy of turbulent flow with eddy or vortex formation can be either by excitation of flow or by a normal pathological obstruction resulting in decreased changes in blood flow. The characteristic high frequency transient and of murmurs with tonal (musical) quality suggest that under pathological circumstances old turbulence within the heart may be retained at onset of irregularity to abnormality. The fibrillation and collapse of the pericardial cavity may be demonstrated as a source for pathologic sound. **S. BIOPHYSICS. ELECTROPHYSIOLOGY (HEART).** [H. H. H.]

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## Phonograph

An instrument for recording (epidemiology) a statistical graph such as a curve and music by a mechanical vibration from (1) stylus that runs in a groove on a rotating disk. For recording and related topics see DISK RECORDING.

[H. H. H.]

## Phonolite

A light-colored, aphanitic (not visibly crystalline) rock of igneous composition, a gely of alkali feldspar and plagioclase (nepheline, leucite, dalesite, and malle mount) and kaolinite (mafic) mineral (botryoidal amphibole and ophioclasts). Phenolite is a hemilitic effusion product of nepheline syenite and similar rocks. Rock

in which plagioclase (oligoclase and andesine) exchanged alkali feldspar are rare and may be called feldspathoidal latite. See FELDSPATHOID.

Rapid cooling at the surface causes a solidify with a very fine grained texture. Most phonolitic lavas however carry abundant large crystals (phenocrysts) when they are erupted and these are mostly in the matrix to give a porphyritic texture. Generally very little material is neoglycized. The phenocrysts many are visible to the naked eye include alkali feldspar feldspathoids and mafic. These may be well formed (euhedral) or moderately well formed (subhedral).

Most other features of phonolite can be seen only microscopically. The alkali feldspar is principally soda rich as idiosyncrasy and orthoclase is generally occur in the rock matrix but it abundant it may also form as phenocrysts. Plagioclase is not abundant except in nepheline latites where it may form abundant phenocrysts.

Nepheline may occur as euhedral crystals (square or hexagonal) some of which may be phenocrysts. Otherwise it is irregular (anhedral) and interstitial. No enclaves haueyne and sodalite are euhedral or partially corroded crystals may occur a phenocryst in a matrix glass. The twelve-sided (dodecahedral) crystals generally show hexagonal outlines in thin sections of the rock. Eight-sided euhedral crystals of psuedoleucite may occur in phenocrysts in potash-rich rocks. More rounded grains of leucite may form part of the matrix. Leucite commonly altered to psuedoleucite in the euhedral outline is retained. Analite occurs principally as matrix material but in some rocks it is abundant and as large euhedral phenocrysts.

Botryites are common but may form large strongly euhedral phenocrysts. Amphibole is usually sodic (riebeckite hastingsite and arfvedsonite). They may occur as phenocrysts or as interstitial. They may show absorption or may be replaced by pyroxene. The most important mafic is soda pyroxene. A phenocryst commonly zoned with core of diopside surrounded by progressively more orthoclase shell of a gineaugite and aegirite. Aegirite is the common pyroxene of the rock matrix.

Accessories mineral include apatite magnetite zircon, and apatite.

The structure and texture of phonolite are similar to those of the more common rock trachyte. Fluidal texture formed by flowage of solidified lava and expressed by lines or trails of phenocrysts may be seen with magnification. Under thin sections of flowage shown by subparallel arrangement of elongate feldspar crystals. See TRACHYTE.

Phonolites are rare and highly variable. They are often found in tuffs and small intrabodas (dikes and sills). They are associated with trachytes and a wide variety of feldspathoidal rocks.

The origin of phonolites and related rocks is still a subject of controversy. There is still considerable difference of opinion as to whether they

liti magma (molten material) originates. One theory assumes an origin from basaltic magma by differentiation. Certain early formed crystals are removed (perhaps by settling) causing the residual magma to approach the composition of phonolite. Another theory supposes these peculiar magmas to form when a more normal rock melts a simulating large quantities of lime (lime) fragments. Volatile notably carbon dioxide are considered by many to play an important role in transferring and concentrating certain constituents (like potassium) in the magma. The great variety of rock types and modes of association strongly suggest that several different mechanisms may operate to form these felsic spathoidal rocks. See IGNEOUS ROCKS. MAGMA

## [ C A C A ]

## Phonon

**Acoustic quantum** The energy of a phonon is  $h\nu$  where  $h$  is Planck's constant and  $\nu$  the frequency of vibration of the sound wave. The phonon is thus analogous to the photon, a light quantum.

In treatments of the scattering of electrons and other particles by thermal waves (short sound waves) in matter the electron rules which are bear a formal resemblance to the laws of conservation of energy and momentum holding for collision between particles. This lead to the concept of a phonon as a packet of sound wave the wave packet having particle like aspects. The concept is particularly convenient in the theory of the thermal conductivity of insulators where one may peak of a phonon gas collisions between phonons and a phonon mean free path. In the theory of the properties of superfluid helium the quanta of longitudinal sound wave in the liquid helium are called phonons. See CONDUCTION (HEAT) [JDL]

## Phonoreception

The perception of sound by animals through specialized sense organ. A sense of hearing is possessed by animals belonging to two divisions of the animal kingdom the vertebrates which form the main subphylum of the phylum Chordata and the insects which comprise the most important class of the phylum Arthropoda. This sense is mediated by the ear a specialized organ for the reception of vibratory stimuli. Such an organ is found in all except the most primitive vertebrate but only in some of the many species of insect. The vertebrate and the many types of ear differ in evolutionary origin and in their modes of operation but both have attained high levels of performance in the reception and discrimination of sound. See Sound.

**Vertebrates** The vertebrate ear is a part of the labyrinth located deep in the bone or cartilage of the head on either side of the brain. A complex assembly of tubes and chambers contains a membranous structure which bears within it a number of interlocking parts of different kind.

The membranous labyrinth is shown in a generalized schematic form in Fig. 1. It is convenient to recognize two divisions: a superior division which

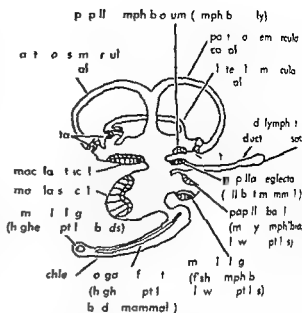


Fig 1 Gene alized sketch of the vertebrate by nith. The three states macula ultricula and maculae sacc are always present in vertebrates and the other states appear as indicated with a few exceptions.

includes the three semicircular canal and the utricle and an inferior division which includes the saccule and its appendage the lagena and the cochlea. The superior division is remarkably uniform in character from the higher fish upward but the inferior division shows many variations. The saccule is always present. The lagena is present in all classes except the mammal although it is missing in occasional species. The cochlea is found in reptiles, birds, and mammals.

The sensory endings within the parts of the labyrinth also vary in the vertebrate series. Again there is uniformity for the superior division. There is a crista in each ampulla of the three semicircular canals and a utricular macula in all but the mammals (with a few individual exceptions); there is a macula neglecta usually located on the floor of the utricle or close to the junction of utricle and saccule. All fishes have an acicular macula. All those with a lagena (in general all except the mammals) have a lagenar macula. All the amphibians have a papilla amphibiorum, but it is found in no therapsids. A lagellar papilla appears in certain amphibians, is continued in the reptiles, and then is developed in the relative rate of the cochlea of higher vertebrate and mammal.

The endings contain isolated cells (hair cells) which are supplied by fibers of the eighth cranial (auditory) nerve. In the retina the hair cells are particularly long and are embedded in a gelatinous substance that forms a cupola. In the macula the hair cells form a flat plate of gelatinous material with numerous granules of calcium phosphate are usually embedded. The isolated papillae on the macula membrane (lamellar membrane) and hence a member of the retinal membrane.

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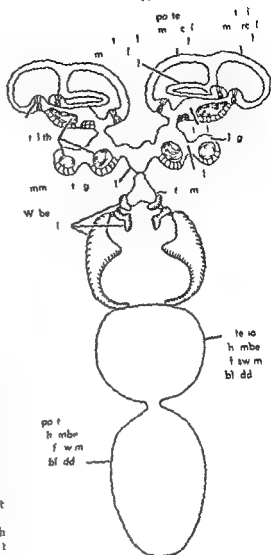


Fig 2 The two lobes of a cat's pharynx  
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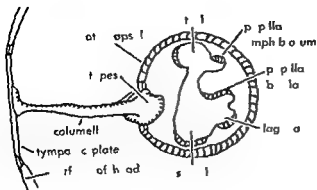


Fig 3 Ear of the frog Diagrammatic simplified

perceived through skin receptors. Hence the endings of the sacculi and lagena are auditory in function. Exceptional in this respect are the herring and sardine (clupeids) in which an air vesicle is applied to the wall of the utricle. In these the sense of hearing is probably mediated by the utricular macula.

**Amphibians** The three orders of amphibians—the Apoda (legless) including wormlike forms such as caecilians, the Caudata (tailed) including mud puppies, newts, and salamanders, and the Salientia (tailless) including frogs and toads—all have some type of middle ear mechanism.

The first two orders include animals whose ears show a great variety of accessory structures, some of which look as though they might function well in sound reception, whereas others seem crude. Of the only one the salamander has been studied experimentally. In 1938 S. Ferhat Akat trained larvae to come for food at the sounding of a tone and got results for tones up to 244 cps in one specimen and up to 218 cps in three others.

Higher amphibians such as the frog possess a well developed middle ear mechanism consisting of a disk of cartilage flush with the lateral surface of the head and covered with skin, and a rod of cartilage and bone called the columella leading inward from the disk and expanding to form the stapes which is imbedded in an opening (oval window) in the wall of the otic capsule (Fig 3).

The active and often loud croaking of frogs in the breeding season has focused attention upon the problem of their hearing. H. Yerkes in 1905 first succeeded in obtaining experimental evidence of their auditory sensitivity by showing that sounds may enhance or inhibit their response to a strong tactual stimulus. Several studies in which the impulses from the eighth nerve were recorded on stimulation with tones showed results only for low frequencies up to 500 or 600 cps or at most to 1024 cps. The most extensive study of the electrical response of the ear by W. Strother in 1958 showed responses in *Rana catesbeiana* over a range from below 100 cps to about 3500 cps. The sensitivity was best at 400–1500 cps and then fell off rapidly to the upper limit.

**Reptiles** The living reptiles belong to four important groups represented by snakes, turtle, chameleons, and lizards and crocodile and alligators.

Many authorities have asserted that snakes are completely deaf or that their ears are sensitive only to vibrations conducted to the head through the ground. This impression has arisen partly from the fact that snakes do not have any external ear and do not show obvious reactions to sounds. There is no tympanic membrane to receive aerial sound pressures, but its purpose is served by one of the bones of the skull, the quadrate bone, which is loosely attached to the main part of the skull. Although it lies beneath the skin and other tissues of the side of the head, the quadrate bone presents a flat surface for the action of sound and communicates them to a thin bony rod (columella) running inward to expand as the stapes in the oval window (Fig 4).

Recent experiments have shown that electrical potentials are produced in the inner ears of snakes in response to low frequency sounds to both the sounds conducted through the substratum and those conducted through the air in the usual way. Hence it seems safe to conclude that snakes have hearing, although only for the lower range of sounds and not as highly sensitive as that of most other animals.

Doubt has often also been expressed about the ability of turtles to hear, but here again the evidence is that they do. They have a well developed middle ear including a cartilaginous disk on the side of the head beneath the skin, and a columella leading to a stapes in the oval window of the otic capsule. Two investigators have succeeded in training turtles to make positive reactions to an acoustic signal, although others have failed in this attempt. The electrophysiological method yields positive results. Indeed, the observations show that for low tones those of 100–700 cps the turtles have excellent sensitivity with the wood turtle *Clemmys insculpta* exceeding other species studied (Fig 5).

Structurally the ear of the lizard is superior to that of the turtle. There is a membranous drum, a columella and a stapes. A few studies have dealt with their hearing and there is no doubt that they hear sounds in the middle range of frequencies.

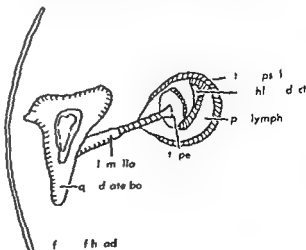


Fig 4 Diagrammatic of the middle ear of a snake. The otic capsule is shown in cross-section.

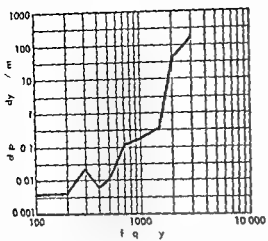


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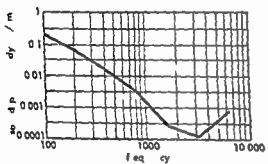


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t b e i n c o d l e s a n d b r d f t i n a l l t h e r  
m a m m a l s t a p i a l o f 1-4 t u r n T h e g e a t e v e n  
t e n n f t h e c h l e a n d t h r p o n d n g m l  
t i p l a t i o n o f n o y c e l l h a s e e h n e e d t h c a  
p a t e s f t h m m m l t d a l w i t h t h e v a i t i e  
n d m p l e t e f u n d

I n p t e t n e n t e t i n m a m m a l n h a r n g  
p e c i n f r m t n i s a v a i l a b l e n o l y a f e w m a m  
m a l p a t f r m m a n h u m e l f E x p e r i m e n t a l t u d  
h a b e n a r d t o o m o f t h e u i t h m a n  
g m a t s a n d a f e w f t h e c m m n l a b r a t y  
a m l O l y f r g e m e n t a r y f m a t i n a v l  
l i l o n t h e m a y o t h e r p e s o f m a m m a l a l  
t h g h t a n b u m e d f r o m t h e r g n a l b e h a

b e a u e t h e y s e m t r e p n d t m c h t h e s a m e  
a g e a d i n t e n t e s l u n d t h a t m a n d e s t h a t  
t h r h e n g i s s i m i l a r t m n

T r n i g x p e m e t s e e l y c r r i d u t o  
t h e a b h m n p m t a n d f m i p r e t s t h e h  
o l d u r v e s f r t h c h m p n e t l e r h u m k e  
a n d a s p e i o f m a r m o s e t w i t h t h h u m a u r v e  
f r r m a p a r s n I t w l l b n o t e d t h a t t h e a n i  
m a l h a s e u d o r y e n t v t y m i l r t m a n i n  
t h l o w t n e n g l i t a r s p e i o r t m n i n t h  
h i g h t n g e

T h e m t e t e n t d e s h e b e n m a d o n  
t h e c t l t s t e t y a l a s s i m i l a t o m a n s o r  
t h e l w e r n g e m t e t n d s f a a b o e t h h u m a n  
l m t t o 60 000 p s m o E l t r i l p o t t i a l s  
h a b e n r e d e d f m t h e a t s o c h l a t o t o n e s  
s h g h 100 000 p s

O t h e r n m l w h o h e r i n g h a s b e s t u d i e d  
p r m e l l y a e t h d o g r t g u n e a p r a b b t  
c r a m p i e s o f m c e n d b a t s

T i t t m o f p e i l i n t e e t m m p a r t i c u  
l r l y t h m a l l n t v r o p e e b c a u s e t h v  
r p e a t d l y p d e o r i s a n d f h g h f e q u n y  
p t 40 000 p a s t h e y f l y l o u t i n e r h f  
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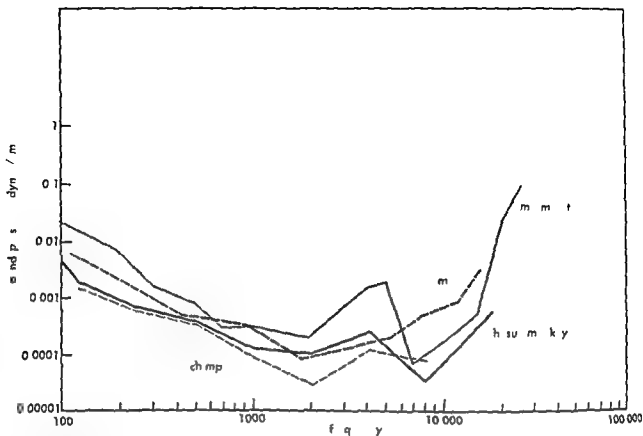


Fig 7 Auditory thresholds of three insects. The curves show the sound pressure level that is barely audible for man, chimpanzees, house monkeys and mammals. (Data from S. and White, *Elde Har s We d a d Se de*.)

echoes of their cries. Similarly they guide themselves in the total darkness of cave by echoes from the walls. The hearing of bats extends far into the high frequencies up to 100,000 cps at least. See EAR HEARING.

**Invertebrates** The group of invertebrates which has received the most attention has been the insects. Other arthropods such as certain crustaceans and spiders have also been found to be sensitive to sound waves.

**Insects** The insect ear consists of a superficial membrane of thin chitin with an associated group of sensillae called *colophores*. Such an apparatus is shown in simplified form in Fig 8. The ears are found in many species of katydid, cricket, grasshoppers, cicadas, waterboatmen, mosquitoes and nocturnal and pinworms. They occur in different places in the body: on the antennae of mosquitoes, on the forelegs of katydids and crickets, on the metathorax of cicadas and waterboatmen, and on the abdomen of grasshoppers. Probably these differently situated organs represent separate evolutionary developments through the association of a thinned-out region of the body wall with sensillae that are found extensively in the body of insect and by themselves seem to serve for olfactory perception.

The interesting modification noted for the production of stridulatory sound made by rubbing the edge of the wing to other parts of the wing. The sound is produced by the males and serves for enticing the female in mating.

The sensitivity of insect ears is keenest in the high frequencies. Figure 9 shows three threshold curves obtained on a katydid by observing the potential produced in the auditory nerve during stimulation with sounds. As will be seen, the sensitivity in this species is greatest in the region of 7,000–60,000 cps. It extends to even higher frequencies usually as high as 120,000 cps and sometimes beyond. Other species have distinctly different sensitivity curves and there is reason to believe that there is a relation to the range of the stridulatory sound. There is evidence that the sounds are discriminated for

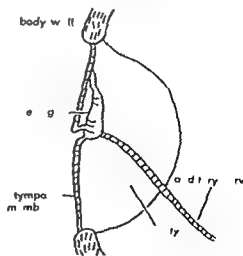


Fig 8 Ear of a grasshopper, diagrammatic.

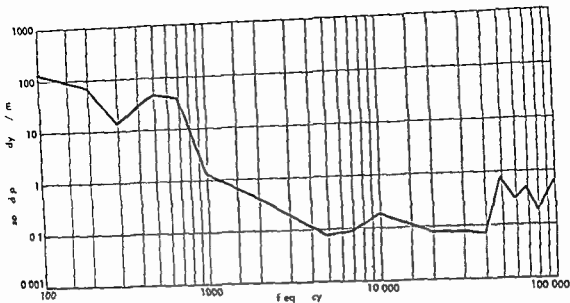


Fig 9 A d r y t h h l d f t h k t y d d C p h Th d t r y t t y u f O t h p t P N i l  
I s t c l (F m E E W d J A V A d S 45 413-419 1959)

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d p e d f t h t d l t g o n r t l f e  
m a l e s w m d d e a f b y e m l i t h e a  
m t t k g d p t o n s t h a t s h w n b y m o q u  
t t h e e r o f t h m l m o q u t i s e n u n l y  
t w g e o f f e q e s a r d 380 c p  
n d t f q e y t h e n e p d e d b y t h  
w g o f t h f m l i n f l i g h t M T i h n e f o d  
t h t w h t h e o f a m a l m q u t w s m a d e  
n f u n t l t h e m s q t f a l d t f i n d a m a t e  
[e c w]

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A d S c i 413-419 1959

### Phoresy

A l t h p b t w t w o d f f r t p f r  
g m w h h t h l r g e o h t g m  
t p r t m l l g s m t h g t l t  
a d e d t y p f m m l m w h h t h e l  
l a t h p l m t e d t a p r t a t f t h g u s t  
T h t m e d i d t P L f l l w g h b  
e r v t n t h b l g y f m l l f y L m  
w h i h t p o t d b y b d f  
t h d g b e t l t t b r r w T h b r r w  
e e t b l b e e d g t f b o t h m l  
[e c w]

B b l o g p h y P L e s M o e d L w a  
M g P h a m e s d t p r t m t l c h

l e s A m a u x r t u l e s O i g s d u f a s t i m  
h e z l e l m t e s d p t r e B l l S c E n t F r  
162 165 1896

### Phoronida

A s m a l l r e l t i e l y h o m g n e o u s g r u p f a n m a l  
w g e r a l l y n d e e d t o t u t t e a p r a t e  
a m l p h y l m a l t h g h n t h e p t t h e y h a  
b n g r y e d w t h t h e r p h y l a u h a t h A n e  
l d a M l l u i d e a n d C h r d t a T w g e n e  
P h o n u s a n d P h o p i s n d a b o t x t e e n p e  
c s r e c o g n d a t t h p e n t t i m h w e r  
t h e t x o m y o f t h e g u p i s n e d f t h o g h  
r e v i o n

Habitat and distribution I h i d m a y o c c  
m e r t u l t u b s p l c e d j u t b e l w t h e r f a c i n  
i t r d l b i d a l m u d f t s r a f e l l k e m a s  
o f t e r t w e d t u b e a t t h e d t r c k s p l g s  
o l d l g t s h h o w w a t I n b t h e t h e t b  
m p d b a l l y o f s t e d m h m e n t l k e  
m a t a l e e n c r u t e d w t h m l l p a r t c l e s f s n d  
w h e l l A t h d l n g h a b t c e r n s t h o p h r o n d  
f n d n d h e l s p b b l y l f m a d i  
l m t o e o k t h e h e l l f d e d p e l e c y p d  
m l l k s

T h e g e g r p h c a l d s t a b u t f p h d s a p  
p r t o b w r l d w d e t m p t n d t r o p i c l  
e s T h r n n c d f m t h p l a r o n

Morphology T h b o d y m r r l e s e l o a t e  
a n g g l t h f e m a b u t 4-20 c m a d b e a  
w n o f t t e l e a a n g e d s d u b l o w  
u d g t h m t h w h c h s l l r e t  
h a p e d T h a n s o x t t h l l f t h m t h  
d b n m p l l a m m e d t l y t s d t h  
d u b l e w f t n t a l T h d g t e t a t i  
t h e f r U h p e d t h m t h d n p e n g  
l t g t h a t d f t h a m a l T h t a  
c l e e t o a n e c t u t b k w n t h  
l o p h p h ( L o p h o p h o n e ) T h d b l e r w f



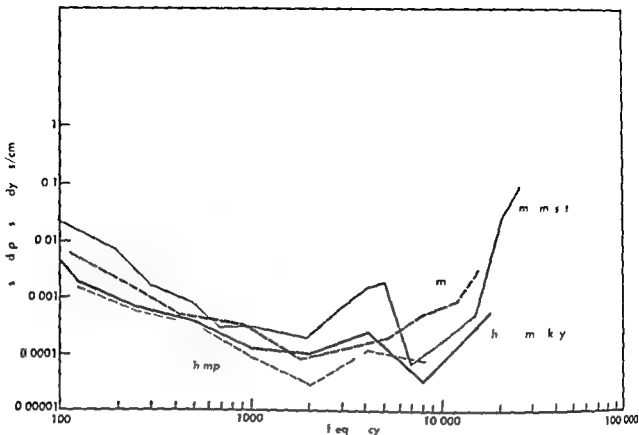


Fig 7 Auditory thresholds plotted. The curves show the sound pressures that are barely audible for man chimpanzees, house flies, and mosquitoes. (Data from Svan and White, Eldred and Sedgwick)

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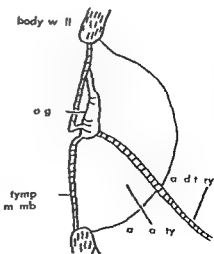


Fig 8 Ear of a grasshopper (dorsal view)

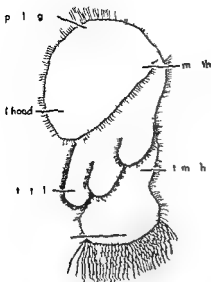


Fig 3. Larva of Ph.

a d a p o b l y r e d w i t h t h a p d t r a t u f t h e b o d y i n t o t h e b e

**Reproduction** R p d u t i v e t e s f o r m e d f m c e l l w h i c h m l i p l y f i s t n t h t h n w a l l o f t h e b l o o d c e c T h e p h y l m i n l d e s b o t h d e c o u a m l a d h e r m a p h r o d A t h e g o n a d i c r e i n e t e t i t d i p l a c e t h e a p e i t n a l u w h i h r k s p p i n t e l r W h n p e t h g a m e s a h e d t h e b o d y t y n d f i n d t h e w y t t h e p h d t o p a m t h r u g h t h e s e a s t o t h e t i d l a t l e a t o n s p e c i e s (P h A p p o c p a) t h e o n a e t i n d i n t h e t n t l a r w u t l t h l a r v a l a t g e o f d e e l o p m t h e d A l l p h r d s m a y r p o d u c e s e x u a l l y n d m s t a e s t e l l h u r y i l d e s t h p l g t t h l a r v S o m s p e c i e s a r e k n t o p d e a s e x b y b y t n v e f i s i S e A n i m L k i c o m { J R M }

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## Phosphate

A g t u h a n g t h e f o r m u l a P O P h s p h t s a d i e d f r m p h p h i a c i d H P O T h e t r m p h p h t s a b o d t r m w h l i n m p e a l l d i e d f m a d s o n t n g p h p h r t h 5+ x d a t n s t a e a s i n t e d i t h l e r A l l i t h l i s t e d a r o b t a d f m P O w t e

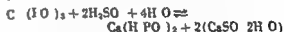
(HPO) M t p h p h o r d  
H<sub>2</sub>PO T p h r h r t p l y p h p h r  
a i d  
H P O P y p h p h n a c i d  
H<sub>2</sub>PO h r i c i d

The n a m i n g o f t h e p h o s p h a t e s i s e m p l i c a t e d b t h f a t t h a t t h e a c i d c o t i n s e c r a l h y d r o g e n s w h i c h a n b e e p l a c e d s t e p w i s e l y r e a c t i n w i t h a b a e a n d t h e f a c t t h a t p h o s p h a t e e x i t a s p o l y m e r o f t h e i m p l e r a c i d l i t d I n t h e c a s e o f t h e m o t c m m o n a c i d o r t h o p h o s p h o r i c t h e s l t s a e n a m d a s f o l l w s p h o p h a t e m e a n s o r t h p h o s p h a t

NaHPO	Mono-sodium phosphate Sodium dihydrogen phosphate Primary sodium phosphate
NaHPO	D sodium phosphate Sodium monohydrogen phosphate Sero-dry sodium phosphate
Na <sub>3</sub> PO	Tertiary sodium phosphate Tertiary di-sodium phosphate Normal sodium phosphate

The a l k a l m e t a l p h o p h a t e a n d t h e p r i m a r y a l k a l e a r t h m e t a l p h o p h a t e a r e s o l u b l e i n w a t e r w h e r e a s m o t o t h e r m e t a l p h o p h a t e a r e p a r t i c l y i n s o l u b l e a t n e u t r a l p H

A l u t o n o f t r s o d i u m p h o s p h a t e i t r n g l b a d u d a s a c l a n g c o m p u n d a d w a t e r a s t e r P h o s p h a t e s a r e i m p o r t a n t i n g r e d i e t i n c o m m e r c i a l f e r t i l i z e r s N a t u r a l p h o s p h a t e r o c k c a n b e c n e r t e d i n t o u s e f u l f e r t i l i z e r s u p e r p h o p h a t b y a r e a c t n w i t h s u l f u a i d



A n i m p o r t a n t u s e f p o l y m e r i p h o p h t e s a s i n g r e d i e n t i n s y n t h e t i c t r g e n i s a n d a s e q u e t e i s a t

T h p h o s p h a t e o n g i e v l l o w a m m n m p h o p h o m o l y b d a t e p r e c p t t a n d y e l l o w A g P O p r e c p t a t e w h h s e r v e a a a l y t i c t e t

C e r t a i n r g a n p h p h t e h a e b n u e d i n n e t i c i d a n d n e r s S e F E R T I L I Z E R O R G A N O P H O S P H O R U S C O T R O U N D P H O S P H O R U S

[E F W R]

## Phosphate metabolism

The a t t e p h o s p h t s c o c c u r i n t h e f i t t u s a o f t h e a m a l b o d y T h e p h o p h t i n m i n e r a l d t s e s e r v e a i m p o r t a n t a g d e p o t c o n t a i n i n g 75-85% o f t h e t o t a l p h o s p h u s i n t h e a n i m a l b o d y T h e l i f t h e s e s t o r e d p h o p h a t s r e p e t o l w e r e c a t e r t i n t h e b l o d p l a s m a t o p r t l a r l y e f f e c t s H e n t h e l e c l o f i g a n i c p h p h a t e s i n t h e b l o d p l a s m a e l t l y a l y l w e r d w h n t h d e t r y u t a k e d e q u t e f f l o w e d b y t h a p p e a n e f s y m p t m f p h p h o s

T h e t r l l e o f p h o p h a t n l i f p o s d t e d b y t h r c o c c u r r e n c i b o a d d x y b n c l e c d h c h e s o i m p o r t a n t p o s i n t h e s y n t h e s i n d i n t h f n t i n f h r m m n t h p e e f g w i t h a n d h r e d t y T l m f s i g n i f i c e f p h o s p h a t n m e t b l m s t h r l e n t h e n r v t u n a n d t a s t e r f e n e r g y p a r t i c u l a r l y t h e e e g y p o d u c e d t h t r b o x y l c d c y c l e (K b y c l) a n d n g l y c o l y s i s



Fig 1 *Phoronopsis harmeri* removed from its tube  
Length about 20 cm

tentacles may form either a slightly indented circle or a complex double spiral. The tentacles vary in number from about 50 in older 300 are ciliated and create a feeding current which carries food particles to the mouth. Feeding and excretory currents have not been studied in detail. Associated with the mouth is a ciliated flap of tissue known as the epistome.

The digestive tract consists of an esophagus, stomach, intestine and rectum. In some species there is a distinct valve between the esophagus and stomach. The junction of the stomach and intestine occurs at the proximal or aboral extremity of the animal. The food seems to consist chiefly of microscopic phytoplankton. Diatom shells may frequently be found in the digestive tract and in fecal pellets.

There is a blood-circulatory system in which elliptical nucleated corpuscles containing hemoglobin circulate. The vascular system consists basically of two longitudinal vessels known as the afferent and efferent vessels which are continuous with one another at the proximal end of the body. Distally both vessels connect with a pair of semicircular vessels located at the level of the lophophore immediately below the tentacles. Within each tentacle is a single blind vessel which branches into two at its base and so connects with both semicircular

vessels. In the living animal corpuscles can be seen pulsating up and down in the tentacular vessels. Associated with the longitudinal blood vessels is a blood sinus surrounding the gut and a large number of blind blood caeca which are particularly numerous in or may be restricted to the proximal end of the body. Associated with the caeca is the jellylike fat body or paraperitoneal tissue. Found among the large semifluid cells of this tissue are inclusions of various sorts. Some of these probably consist of guanine or some related form of nitrogenous waste. Others may represent the products of hemoglobin breakdown.

The body cavity is subdivided by a series of longitudinal mesenteries extending from the digestive tract to the body wall. In most phoronids there are four such mesenteries occupying oral and right lateral and left lateral positions thus dividing the coelomic cavity into four chambers. There is also a horizontal mesentery near the tentacular end of the body separating a lophophoral coelom from the four larger and more proximal coelomic chambers.

The two nephridia open on either side of the anal papilla. Each nephridium consists of a duct coiled once on itself and usually a pair of funnels, one opening into each of the oral and anal coelomic cavities. The funnels have extensive folded and ciliated margins.

The body wall consists of an outer layer of epithelial cells, many of them secretory and concerned with the building of the tube, and two layers of muscle. The outermost layer of muscle consists of circular fibers and inside this is a series of bundles of longitudinal fibers. An unpolarized nerve net underlies the external epithelium and continues as a more dense concentration in the form of a ring in the horizontal mesentery. Extending proximally from cell bodies in this ring are one or two giant nerve fibers which taper and disappear at the proximal end of the body. The giant nerve fibers are known in all species except one (*Phoronis ovalis*).

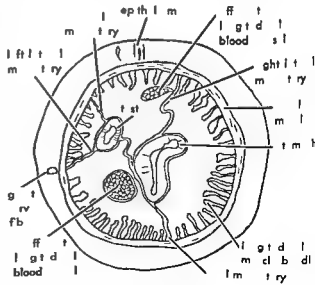


Fig 2 Cross section through a *Phoronis*



They do not participate in many phosphorylation and transphosphorylation reactions involving sugars and other organic compounds. See CHROMOSOME METABOLISM CYCLE NUCLEIC ACID

In phosphorylation reactions compounds are formed which yield relatively large amounts of free energy when their phosphate bond is cleaved by hydrolysis. Example of such compounds are creatine phosphate (CP) and adenosine triphosphate (ATP). A central part in the energy storage and transfer in all kinds of living tissue is played by ATP. In both CP and ATP the phosphate bond can be transferred between molecules without liberation of inorganic phosphate. See ADENOSINETRIPHOSPHATE (ATP).

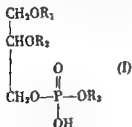
Phosphorus containing coenzyme systems include the pyridine nucleotide system concerned with oxidation-reduction reactions, coenzyme A, the functional form of pantothenic acid concerned among other things with transacetylation in conjunction with ATP and acetic acid, and the diposphothiamine system concerned with decarboxylation. See ACETYLCHOLINE BIOCHEMISTRY COENZYME [H H M I]

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## Phosphatide

A complex lipid containing phosphorus and in many cases nitrogen. Phosphatides are also known as phospholipids. The phosphatides are usually divided into groups on the basis of the nonlipid portion of the compound from which they are derived. For example, glycerophosphatides are derived from glycerophosphoric acid, sphingomyelin or phosphosphingosides are derived from sphingosinephosphate and inositol lipid or inositol phosphatides are derived from inositol mono- or diphosphate.

**Glycerophosphatides** These are phosphatides which contain a glycerophosphoric acid residue. They are derived from glycerophosphoric acid (I) where  $R = R_1 = R_2 = H$ . The following com-



pounds are glycerophosphatides (1) phosphatidyl ethanolamine or cephalin where  $R_1 = R_2 =$

fatty acid  $R_1 =$  ethanolamine (2) phosphatidyl choline or lecithin where  $R_1 = R_2 =$  fatty acid,  $R_3 =$  choline (3) phosphatidyl serine where  $R_1 = R_2 =$  fatty acid  $R_3 =$  serine (4) phosphatidyl inositol where  $R_1 = R_2 =$  fatty acid  $R_3 =$  inositol (5) lysophosphatidyl ethanolamine where  $R_1$  or  $R_2 =$  fatty acid  $R_1$  or  $R_2 = H$   $R_3 =$  ethanolamine (6) lysophosphatidyl choline where  $R_1$  or  $R_2 =$  fatty acid  $R_1$  or  $R_2 = H$   $R_3 =$  choline (7) plasmalogens where  $R_1$  or  $R_2 =$  fatty acid  $R_1$  or  $R_2 = \alpha\beta$  unsaturated either  $R_1 =$  ethanolamine or serine (8) ether lipid where  $R_1 =$  saturated ether  $R_2 =$  fatty acid  $R_3 =$  ethanolamine (9) phosphatidic acid where  $R_1 = R_2 =$  fatty acid,  $R_3 = H$  (10) cardiolipin is a polymer of phosphatidic acid.

**Sphingophosphatides** These are phosphatides which contain a sphingosine phosphate residue. There are two known members of this class—sphingomyelin (II) and phytoglycolipid which is considered in the section on glycolipids.

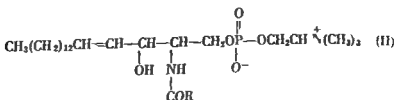
**Occurrence and functions** Cephalin, lecithin, phosphatidyl inositol and the plasmalogens are present in both plant and animal tissues. Phosphatidic acids and phytoglycolipid have been found only in plants. Sphingomyelin has been found only in animal tissues, and the ether lipid was isolated recently from egg yolk.

Since an individual phosphatide may contain a variety of fatty acid residue, it may be described as pure only with that limitation in mind. Phosphatides can act as protective colloids, wetting and emulsifying agents and as antioxidants and are therefore used considerably in the food and petroleum industries. The chief source of commercial phosphatides is soy bean. See LIPID [H H C R H C]

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## Phosphorescence

Sometimes called afterglow, phosphorescence commonly denotes a delayed luminescence that is luminescence that persists after removal of the exciting source. This original definition is rather imprecise because the nature of the detector used will determine whether or not there is observable persistence. In a more rigorous sense, phosphorescence may be defined as a delayed luminescence whose persistence time decreases with increasing temperature. In nonphotochemical phosphorescence may be defined as a delayed luminescence whose persistence time decreases with increasing temperature. In photochemical phosphorescence, the luminescent atom (or molecular molecule) is in a metastable energy state (if molecule has transition to the state of lower energy or ground state after excitation) and energy has been provided to raise it to the



at m t an e ergy ist f om wh h l m i e t  
t n to a e llowed I ph to ducti e old  
ph pho cen gene ally ar swl nel ct n or  
h l et fee by th exc t t n pr m nd tr pped  
t l t e d f c t s a e pelled f om thei tr p by  
dd d e g v (Hole uno cup ed n rgy  
t t a ene gy b nd th t t n r m lly filled  
S HOLES t SOLIDS)

Th t m p s t u d p d e e of pho pho e cence  
m lts in a w d e v a m f lter glow or pe  
i e t m s At r y low temperatu e wh e  
the set at n ene gy t m t m s f om meta t  
bl to m t t a t s r to e pel l c t r s f om  
tr p s n t a labl l t t l o m fte gl w i b  
erv d At som h r h e r t r a p r t e a l w i t e t y  
l n g l v e d f t g l w w l l e b e r v d a t a t l l  
h g h t m p t u t h a f t r g l o w w l l e b r i g h t e r  
b t f h r t e d a t F n l l y t m h h t m  
p a t u r e w h e t h a t e f e x p u l o f t m f r m  
m t a t a b l t a t o t h e a t o f e l l n o f e l e  
t n f m t p s i s r v a p d t h a f t e r g l o w a n  
b e c m i m m e u a b l y h t

Th t m e c n d e a l a w f pho pho r e n e  
n b e x t r m l y c m p l x d p n d i n g n the num  
b r a d n r g of the m a t b l t t l c  
t r t r p l d Ph s p h s h a e b e n y t h e  
z d h i g e a p h p h r e c e n t m i s o n i b l  
t h y f b o u t h a l f a d y a t n r m a l t e m p e a  
t

S LUMI ESCENCE e l o A B S O R P T I O N (E L E C  
T R O M A G N E T I C R A D I A T I O N) [C C V S H S]

## Phosphorus

C h m i l m n t m b 35 p h p h s P f o r m s  
t h b f a r y l g w m b f m p j d s t h e  
m i m p t s i l f w h a r e t h p h o p h e  
F o e e y f m l l i p h p h t p l y a s e t l

r l n a l l g t r n f e r p t e c h a m e  
t b o l m p h t n i t e r r f n t d m  
l a l T h i d w h t a m g o t h e r  
t h g m a k p t h h r d i r m t l t h h o  
m m i p h p h a t m b f c o  
n m

A p p x m a t l y 3 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 l b f p h p h  
e t a l l i l n t h e f r m f p h p h t a d  
a n l l n t h U n i t e d S t a t a d p h p h a t u t l  
z t t h i n t A b o t 7 0 ° f t h g o e  
t f e l l 1 3 ° t h i l t d t r g n t B  
n m l f e e d 2 ° n t w a t e r s o f t i n g p p l t

3 0 ° i n t p h a r m a c e u t i c a l a n d f o o d s 1 1 ° i n t  
m e t l p r o t e u o n 0 7 ° i n t p l a t i z e g a s o l i n e  
d d t e s a n d i n e a c i d e s a n d 4 ° i n t r i c e l l a  
n e o u s a p p l i c t i o n s

**Occurrence and manufacture** Of the nearly 200  
d i f f e r e n t p h o s p h a t e m i n e a l o n l y n e f l u o r a p a  
t i t e s m m e r i a l l y i m p o r t a n t T h e m i n e r a l  
C a s F ( I O ) i s m i d f o m l a r g e e c o n d a r y d e p o  
s i t o r i g n a t i n g f r m t h e b o n e s o f d e a d c r a  
t r e d e p o s i t e d o n t h e b o t t o m o f p e t r o l i c s e a s  
a n d f m b i d d r o p p i n g s i n a n c i e n t r o o k e r r e  
I n t h e U n i t e d S t a t e s t h e m a j o r p h o s p h a t e d e p o s i t s  
a r e i n F l o i d a T e s a n d t h e M o n t a n a I d h o  
r g o O t h e r i m p o r t a n t d e p o s i t a r e f o u n d i n M o  
r o c T s a a n d R u s s i a

C o n c e n t r a t i o n o f p h o s p h a t e r o c k ( t h e n a m g i e n  
t o t h e c o m m o n m p r e f o r m f i t h m e r a l a p a  
t i t ) t o u s a b l e h e m i c a l s i s a c o m p l i s h e d b y t w o  
m a j o r r e a c t i o n s w e t a c i d a n d l i m e t a l p h o r u s  
I n t h e w e t a c i d p r o c e s s t h e p h o s p h a t e r o c k i s  
t r e a t e d w i t h s u l f u r i c a c i d t o b r i n g a r y i m  
p u r e p h o s p h a t e c o m p o u n d p l u s a p r e c i p i t a t e o f c a l  
c i u m s u l f a t e A l a r g e b o d y o f t e c h n o l o g y h a s b e e n  
d e v e l o p e d t h a t e e s e y r e m o v e s t h e a l c u m  
s u l f a t e a n d s u b s e q u e n t c o n c e n t r a t i o n a n d p a r t i a l  
p r e c i p i t a t i o n o f t h e p h o s p h a t e a n d U n d e r p r e s e n t  
d a y c o n d i t i o n s i n t h e U n i t e d S t a t e s t h e  
e l e c t r i c f i r i n g i n d u s t r i a l g a d e p h o s p h a t e v i a t h e  
w a t e r p r o c e s s a b o t e q u a l e n t t o t h e c o s t o f  
u s e r i n g t h e r e t r o m e n t a l p h o s p h o r u s a n d  
t h e b r i n g i n g t o g e t h e r h i g h l y p u r e p h o s p h a t e  
d r u g h o n e r t e d i n t o t h e p h o s p h a t e I n e l e  
m e n t a l p h o s p h a t e m a n u f a c t u r e p h o s p h a t e r o c k  
i s c a l c i n e d a n d f e d t a n e l e c t r o f r n a c e m  
w h c h a h i g h t e m p e r a t u r e r a c t i o n u s t o g e t  
t h e w h i t e m d f a t n o f e l e m e n t a l p h o s p h o r u s  
P a c a l e m s i a t e l a g n d f e m i m  
p u r i t y t h p h o s p h a t e r o c k n i s t h p h o s p h a t e  
a l l e d f p h o s p h o r u s P e t e n t m e n t f t h e o c  
e m m o r t o f t h e f l u e

A l t h o u g h m e t a l l e m e n t a l p h o s p h a t e r o c k i s m a  
u n h a n d a r y b m b s n m e t a l l i c g n d n t h e  
p r o d u c t i o n f r g a s d e a t e a n d c h e m i c a l s  
f m t h e m e t a l e m e n t a l p h o s p h a t e n  
r i e d t p h o s p h a t e d b y r e t r o m e n t a l p h o s p h a t e  
w a t e r m l i n g t o g e t h e r E l e m e n t a l p h o s p h a t e  
p h o s p h a t e a n d p h o s p h a t e e t h e s t i t u t e  
r i s t o t h e w i t h s t a l l o t h e r c o m p o u n d o f  
p h o s p h a t e P h o s p h a t e a d i t r e d w i t h d a  
t a c o a n d t h e s i t i n g p h o s p h a t e  
c o m p o u n d t h a c l e d n l a r g e t a r m  
z e c m a k p o n d t i p l y p h a t e  
r y l g m o t

**Phosphorus chemistry** B e c a u s e o f t h e t m  
d u l l a g u m b o f m p n d b a e d m r  
b d p r h m t y h s b n d i d e d i t  
o g a i w h c h t r i f e b o c m p o f n d  
i g a h m t r w h i d a l w i t h t h m  
n d o f t h e 1 0 0 d d t h i m n t R e n t  
e n t i f e w k a n t h f i l d o f p h o s p h a t e m t y  
n d a t e t h e r t e n t i l t h r m a t m a  
m p u n d b a d p h o s p h a t e a o c b o n  
t h a t t h e m t r i f p h o s p h a t e m t y

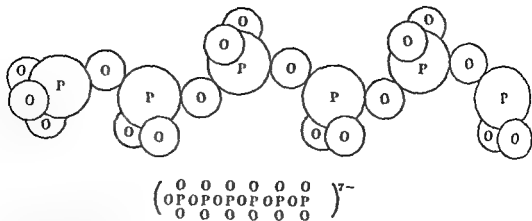


Fig 1 Long-chain phosphate anion  $(\text{P}_3\text{O}_{10})^{4-}$   
(From R E Kirk and D F Othmer eds Encyclopedia of Chemical Technology of Interscience 1953)

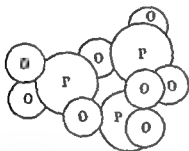


Fig 2 Ring phosphate anion  $(\text{P}_3\text{O}_6)^{3-}$  (From R E Kirk and D F Othmer eds Encyclopedia of Chemical Technology vol 10 Interscience 1953)

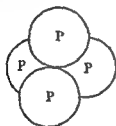


Fig 3 White phosphorus  $\text{P}_4$  (From R E Kirk and D F Othmer eds Encyclopedia of Chemical Technology vol 10 Interscience 1953)

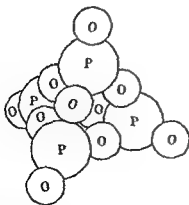


Fig 4 Phosphorus pentoxide  $\text{P}_4\text{O}_{10}$  in the open state (From R E Kirk and D F Othmer eds Encyclopedia of Chemical Technology vol 10 Interscience 1953)

come a major branch of chemical knowledge. In organic chemistry it has been customary to group the various chemical compounds based on carbon into families which are called homologous series. This can be done in the chemistry of phosphorus compounds although at the present time many such phosphorus based homologous series are quite incomplete. The best known of the homologous series of compounds based on phosphorus is the phosphate family. Phosphate salts consist of cations, such as sodium, along with chain anion which may have 1-1,000,000 phosphorus atoms per anion. A structural representation of the end of a long chain stretched out phosphate anion is given in Fig 1.

As shown in the diagrammatic representation the phosphates are based on phosphorus atoms tetrahedrally surrounded by oxygen atoms with the lowest member of the series being the simple  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  anion (the orthophosphate ion). The family of chain phosphates is based on a row of alternating phosphorus and oxygen atoms in which each phosphorus atom remains in the center of a tetrahedron of four oxygen atoms as shown in the structural diagram. There is also a closely related family of ring phosphate a member of which the trimetaphosphate is shown in Fig 2.

An interesting structural characteristic of many known phosphorus compounds is the formation of cage-like structures. Such cage-like molecules are exemplified by white phosphorus  $\text{P}_4$  and one of the forms of phosphorus pentoxide that with the chemical formula  $\text{P}_4\text{O}_{10}$ . Network structures are also common. An example is found in black phosphorus in the crystals of which the atoms are bonded together in the form of vast corrugated planes.

In the majority of its compounds phosphorus is chemically bonded to 4 neighboring atoms. There is also a large number of compounds in which 1 of the 4 neighboring atoms is absent and in which its place is taken by an unshared pair of electrons. Two typical compounds based on this type of phosphorus are shown in Figs 6 and 7. In addition to the compounds based on quadruply



Fig 5 Blk phphos P (F m R E K k d  
D F Offm d E y l p d f Ch m l T h l y  
l gy l 10 l l 1953)



Fig 6 T m thyl ph ph  $\text{P}(\text{OCH}_3)_3$

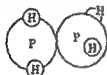


Fig 7 Bph ph PH (F m R E K k d D F  
Offm d E y l p d f Ch m l T h l y  
of 10 l l 1953)

nected ph sph ru a d th s ba d n triply co  
cted ph phor th a alw compounds  
n h h b r ar 5 6 ghb ngat m bonded  
t th ph ru Th e omp ds e ery r a  
t e nd t d to be un table b s f the use f d  
o b tal s th s b del s t u tur E am  
ple a g e i Fig 8 and 9

Str ct ral m gan zat pl y n mpo tant role  
n th h m try f ph sph ru mpo vnds Thus  
f e m pl when vari mxt res f POBr a d  
POCl re l d a g l a tub and allow d t  
m e s q l b um th t ried at c m pou d  
POClB a d POCl B m fo m d m ious  
m u t d p d g n th at f the ta t g  
m t l (Fig 10) The POB — POCl corg n i  
zat l omp d ba ed n a sngle ph s  
ph ru t m s wh h bo ded l o yge nd 3  
h l g n t m f h l o r i d b m e a e halo  
E l St tu f eo gan zat n also cc s b  
tw n a membr f a h m l g u a e s f  
m po d In th polyph sph ryl h l r d h m l  
f e ex corg n zat takes pl e by ex  
h m f b d g n yge t m with h l me  
at m ) t a i the POBr — POCl a t m th  
e ha ge bet ee h l o n e a d b m m t m  
Th a t s l u t n a polyph pho yl  
h l d mpo t on a the m ph ph ru c m  
pou d POCl th d g p Cl(O)PO — th  
m d d l gr p — O (Cl)P(O)O — nd the  
l n h i g g ou p OP(O —) n wh h th br dg  
f e y r i m a h w a O u s e they i

shared between ne ghb ing pho phorus atoms A  
typical structure in a polyphosphoryl chloride m  
sh wn in Fig 11

When va ious ratio of chl r ne to o ygen re  
empl yed the d tributi n of the structural units  
changes as shown in Fig 10 wh e A stands for  
the m n o h o phorus comp und POCl, B for the  
nds C for the m d d l e s D f r th h a n h e and  
D' f r th m pl tely b a ched comp und pho  
phorus p tox de The end m id d l e s nd br n c l e s  
do n t ex st by th m s e l e s but must be combi e d  
together to form chemi al compo nd The line  
labeled x in th figu m repres nts the l m i t b v nd  
wh ch t r e s a s u f f i c i e n t l y l a r g e p r o p r t i o n o f  
br n g n g p o n t s th a t i n f i n i t e w a l l t o w a l l m l e c u  
l a t r u c t u e b e c m e s t a t i c a l l y p r o b a b l e The  
p r s n f s u c h w l l t o w l l m o l e c u l a r t r u c t u e s  
i n th m i t u e o f v a i o u s s z e d a n d h a p e d p l y  
pho phoryl h l o i d e m l e c u l e l e a d t o h i g h i s  
c o t a d n t c e a s i b l e e l a s t i c b e h a v o r

In s p t e o f th f a t th a t h o m o l o g o u s e i and  
ompo nds ba d on a number f phosphorus  
atoms are phasized n th a r t i c l e the extens m  
chemical l i t a t u r e b e f o r e 1950 d e a l n g w i t h p h o s  
p h u s c h e m t r y w a s r e t i c t e d a l m o t e n t i r e l y t o  
comp und thought to be ba ed on a s n g l e p h o s  
p h o r u a t o m (m o n o p h s p h u s c o m p o u n d s)

P r i n c i p a l c o m p o u n d s a n d u s e s E n t i a l l y  
o f th p h o p h o r u s u e d i n c e m m r e e i s m the  
f r m o f p h o p h a t e s The m a j o r i t y f p h o p h a t i c  
f e r t i l i z e r s c o n s i s t o f h i g h l y i m p u r e m o n o c a l i m  
o r d e a l c m r t h p h o p h t e  $\text{Ca}(\text{HPO}_4)$  and  
C H P O These p h s p h a t e s a e a l t s o f o t h o  
p h s p h r i a c d w h c h th m o n p h o s p h r u  
m p and in the p h s p h t e h m l o g s e r i e s  
I m p u r d a l i m o r t h o p h s p h a t e f o r f e r t i l i z  
u e u a l l y c a l l e d u p r p h o p h t e w h e r e a s  
the i m p u r e m o n o l i m p h s p h a t e u e d i n th

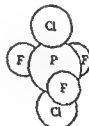


Fig 8 Ph sph ru d h l d t a d PCIF  
F m R E K k d D F Offm d E y l p d  
f Chem c l T h l y l 10 l l 1953)

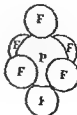


Fig 9 H a l p h p h a e P F



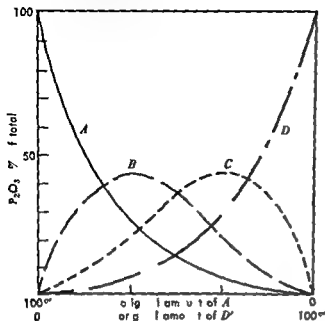


Fig 10 Reorganization eq 1b in which  $A = \text{POCl}_3$ ,  $B = \text{POCl}_2\text{Br}$ ,  $C = \text{POClBr}_2$  and  $D$  and  $D' = \text{POBr}_3$

application is called triple superphosphate. See FERTILIZER.

Two properties of the family of chain phosphates have led to numerous industrial applications for the compounds. The properties are deflocculation of colloidal particles and formation of soluble complexes with cations. The chain phosphates are strongly adsorbed on the surfaces of inorganic solids and hence give these surfaces high negative charges. When finely divided particles bear such high charges they repel each other and are deflocculated, peptized or dispersed. An interesting example of this phenomenon is found when a plastic clay-water mass is treated with a chain phosphate. By addition of perhaps a few tenths of 1% of sodium tripolyphosphate to a plastic mass of clay suitably rigid for sculpturing the clay particles are deflocculated so that the mass liquefies to a consistency similar to that of tomato soup.

The formation of soluble complexes with cations has often been described under the term sequestration because a complexed ion is sequestered or hidden away in the solution so that it no longer exhibits its normal chemical reactions. The calcium and magnesium of hard water are sequestered by the addition of small (stoichiometric) amounts of chain phosphates so that the water is effectively softened. The complexed calcium will then no longer form precipitates with the carbonate or sulfate in the water to give pipe scale or with soap anions to give for example a ring around the bathtub.

The third member of the family of sodium phosphates sodium tripolyphosphate is the major compound used in building synthetic detergents to achieve improved cleaning primarily by dispersing inorganic soil and softening the water. The major household detergent produced in the United States

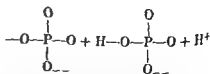
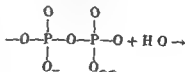
for washing clothes consists of 50% by weight of sodium tripolyphosphate  $\text{Na}_3\text{P}_3\text{O}_{10}$ . This compound is used extensively in water softening and are other members of the homologous series of chain phosphates. See DETERGENT, SURFACE ACTIVE AGENT, WATER SOFTENING.

An interesting water softening application is found in the cold treatment in which tiny traces of a chain phosphate (much less than would be used in sequestering) are used to prevent the formation of pipe scale from hard water. This application is related to the dispersing action of the phosphates because traces of phosphate adsorb on the growing surface of the pipe scale as it begins to form and thus inhibits its further growth.

A major pharmaceutical use of phosphates is in toothpaste in which dicalcium phosphate is the most popular polishing agent. Monocalcium phosphate and sodium acid pyrophosphate  $\text{Na}_2\text{H}_2\text{P}_2\text{O}_7$  (the pyrophosphate is the second member of the phosphate family) are employed as leavening agents in cake mixes, refrigerated biscuits, etc., in flour and baking powder.

Special mixtures based on orthophosphoric acid  $\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4$  are used to phosphatize metal surfaces. In this treatment the surfaces become covered with a thin adhering layer of insoluble orthophosphate salts which protect the metal from corrosion and offer an especially adherent base for painting. Automobile bodies for example are now generally phosphatized before they are painted to prevent rusting in use. Orthophosphate esters find wide use as plasticizers having flame-proofing properties and as gas-oil and oil additives.

The phosphorus compound of major biological importance is adenosine triphosphate which is an ester of the salt sodium tripolyphosphate widely employed in detergents and water softening compounds. Practically every reaction in metabolism and photosynthesis involves the hydrolysis of this tripolyphosphate to its pyrophosphate derivative called adenosine diphosphate. The hydrolysis of chain phosphates occurs through splitting of a  $\text{P}-\text{O}-\text{P}$  linkage as indicated in the following chemical equation:



In neutral solution at room temperature the rate for this process is extremely slow. However, enzymes increase the rate many thousandfold. The equilibrium between adenosine triphosphate, adenosine diphosphate, and the orthophosphate ion is strongly shifted toward the hydrolysis product.

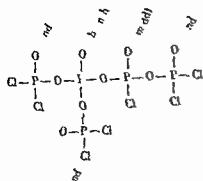


Fig 11 1 p t polyph ph ryl hl d P O Cl

ad no diph phat and the orth ph phate ion  
 Becau l the f ct orga cre ctions n pol  
 luv t m re n turaly co tr lled o that l i can  
 ex t S = ADENOSINETRIPHOSPHATE (ATP)

[J V W]

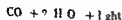
Bil aphy J R V n Wa r Phospho us d  
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## Phot

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 a d d the l x S e FOOT CANDLE ILLUMINA  
 TION LUX [J V W]

## Photochemistry

Th b a h of chem try de l ng w th the inter el  
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 ph R Th l l a t a n h o l d b w t t



i order to ind cate that all the oxygen gas e mes  
 fr n the water and none fr m the carb n d oxide  
 Th s h s b e e p r o v e d by e m p l o y i n g the y g e n i o  
 t o p o f m a s l b t f o l l o w the path of oxygen in the  
 p r o c e The path of carbon in the p r e s has been  
 f o l l o w e d by e m p l o y g t h r a d i a c t i v e carbon i  
 t o p o f m a l 4 v e r y l i t t l e is known h w e e r a b o u t  
 the way in whi h the l i g h t a b o r b e d by the chl r o  
 p h y l l b n g s a b o u t the react o n

The unit of light energy m a c u l u s e f u l in photo  
 chem i s t r y is the ph ton  $= hc/\lambda$  where  $h$  is  
 Pl n c k s a t n t  $(6.5 \times 10^{-27} \text{ erg sec})$   $c$  is the  
 l o c i t y of l i g h t  $(3 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm/sec})$  and  $\lambda$  is the  
 w a v e l e n g t h of the light in cm  $(\lambda A = 10^{-8} \text{ cm})$

A n o t h e r p h tochem i c a l n t of l i g h t n e g y is  
 th e n t n w h c h i the energy of  $6 \times 10^3$  or 1  
 m o l e  $N$  f l i g h t q u a n t Th u l e m t n of red  
 l i g h t is  $h = hc/\lambda = (6 \times 10^{23} \times 6.5 \times 10^{-27} \times$   
 $3 \times 10^{10}) / (6700 \text{ A} \times 10^{-8}) = 175 \times 10^3 \text{ erg}$   
 $(175 \times 10^3) / (4.186 \times 10^3) = 42000 \text{ cal}$  Th i s  
 a m u n t f e n e g y i g r e a t e r t h a n t h a c t i a t i o n  
 e e g y r e q u i r e d t i n s t i c m a n y the m a l e c t i n

Quantum yield The e f f i c i e n c y of a photo hem  
 c a l m e c t a is u u l l y e x p r e s s e d in terms of th  
 q u a n t u m y i e l d w h i c h is q u a l to the n u m b e r of  
 m o l of the t a t e d r e a c t s t a p p e a r i n g o r t o t h  
 n u m b e r of m o l e f the t a t e d p r o d u t p r o d u c e d  
 p e r m o l e i n f l i g h t f the t a t e d w a v e l e n g t h b e  
 e d Th g r a q a t u m y i e l d is c a l c u l a t e d f r o m  
 the l i g h t a b o r b e d by the e n t r e p h t n t i s y  
 t e N t q u a n t u m y i e l d is b d o n the l i g h t a b  
 s o r b e d by the t t d c o m p n e n t o r p c i s of the  
 s y s t e m f h t h n c a l r a c t i o n a r e m o t e l y  
 n d e t d n t e m f n e t q a s i m y l d s

Photochemical reactions Ph to h m t r y m a y  
 l o b e d e f i d a s the h m t r y of e n e g y r i h  
 p f t n e x t e d t e s W h e n p r o d u c d b y th a b  
 o p t i o n of i s b l or u l t r a l e t l i g h t t h e s a  
 l t o c a l l y e x c i t e d s t a t e e u l t i n g f o m the  
 t r a f e of a l e t o n t a l h r e n e r g y l e v l  
 Th t m r e q u i r e d f t h s t r f e r s o h r t h a t  
 d i g h t s t i m e the p s i t n o f th u c l e s of th  
 a t m s i d m a i n u n c h a n e d Th i s k n o w n a  
 th F n c k C n d n p r i n c i p l e

F l l w a n g th p r i m a r y a c t i n of g r a t m a n y  
 d f f e r n t k n d f p c e s m y t a k e p l e  
 1 P o d t n f n g y r c h i n g l e t n d t r p l e t  
 t t f l l o w e d by f i r e e n c p h s p h o r n e  
 n d d e g a d t o i t h t o b e d e n e y t h t  
 2 T r a s f e f the f i c t n n e g y o t r n f e  
 f e l e c t o n p h t o n r h y d g n a t m t r i f m  
 th r p r e

3 B r a k g a p a r t of e n e r g y c h C l  
 l C l a t o m O n t O n d O

4 P o d t n f a w d e v e r y a f c h m l r a c  
 t A m g t h e a t o n a the l e t r n t r n  
 f t u n i w h h w t r d e c o m p o s e d i t h  
 d r g e n a d v y g b y l i g h t a b o b e d i t c r u m  
 o w t r t o t r a a d i a s t c i m  
 t z a t n n a n the c a e f t h n d i g h t h i f t m  
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 s t e d t a m a n d d e c t n f the e x c i t e d

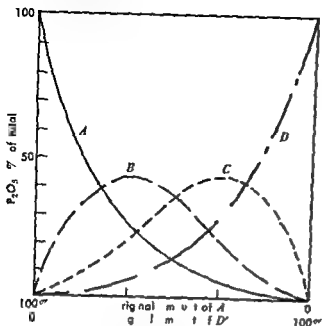


Fig. 10 Reaction equilibrium where  $A = \text{POCl}_3$ ,  $B = \text{POCl}_2\text{Br}$ ,  $C = \text{POCl}_2\text{I}$ , and  $D = \text{POBr}_3$

application is called triple superphosphate. See FERTILIZER.

Two properties of the family of chain phosphates have led to numerous industrial applications for these compounds. These properties are deflocculation of colloidal particles and formation of soluble complexes with cations. The chain phosphates are strongly adsorbed on the surfaces of inorganic solids and hence give these surfaces high negative charges. When finely divided particles bear such high charges they repel each other and are deflocculated, peptized or dispersed. An interesting example of this phenomenon is found when a plastic clay-water mass is treated with a chain phosphate. By addition of perhaps a few tenths of 1% of sodium tripolyphosphate to a plastic mass of clay suitably rigid for culturing the clay particles are deflocculated so that the mass liquefies to a consistency similar to that of tomato soup.

The formation of soluble complexes with cation has often been described under the term sequestration because a complexed ion is sequestered or hidden away in the solution so that it no longer exhibits its normal chemical reactions. The calcium and magnesium of hard water are sequestered by the addition of small (stoichiometric) amounts of chain phosphates so that the water is effectively softened. The complexed calcium will then no longer form precipitates with the carbonate or sulfate in the water to give pipe scale or with soap anions to give for example a ring around the bathtub.

The third member of the family of sodium phosphates, sodium tripolyphosphate, is the major compound used in building synthetic detergents to achieve improved cleaning, primarily by dispersing inorganic soil and softening the water. The average household detergent produced in the United States

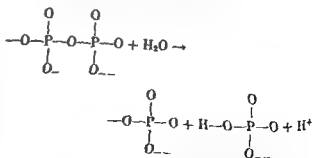
for washing clothes consists of 50% by weight of sodium tripolyphosphate,  $\text{Na}_5\text{P}_3\text{O}_{10}$ . This compound is used extensively in water softening as are other members of the homologous series of chain phosphates. See DETERGENT, SURFACE ACTIVE AGENT, WATER SOFTENING.

An interesting water softening application is found in the household treatment in which tiny traces of a chain phosphate (much less than would be used in sequestration) are used to prevent the formation of pipe scale from hard waters. This application is related to the dispersing action of the phosphates because traces of phosphate adsorb on the growing surface of the pipe scale as it begins to form and this inhibits its further growth.

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Special mixtures based on orthophosphoric acid,  $\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4$ , are used to phosphatize metal surfaces. In this treatment the surfaces become covered with a thin adhering layer of insoluble orthophosphate salts which protect the metal from corrosion and offer an especially adherent base for paint. Automobile bodies for example are now generally phosphatized before they are painted to prevent rusting in use. Orthophosphate is also found widely used as plasticizers having flame-proofing properties and as gasoline and oil additives.

The phosphorus compound of major biological importance is adenosine triphosphate, which is an ester of the salt sodium tripolyphosphate widely employed in detergent and water softening compounds. Practically every reaction in metabolism and photosynthesis involves the hydrolysis of the tripolyphosphate to its pyrophosphate derivative called adenosine diphosphate. The hydrolysis of chain phosphates occurs through splitting of a  $\text{P}-\text{O}-\text{P}$  linkage as indicated in the following chemical equation:



In neutral solution at room temperature the rate for this process is extremely low. However, enzymes increase the rate many thousandfold. The equilibrium between adenosine triphosphate, water, adenosine diphosphate and the orthophosphate ion is strongly shifted toward the hydrolysis product.

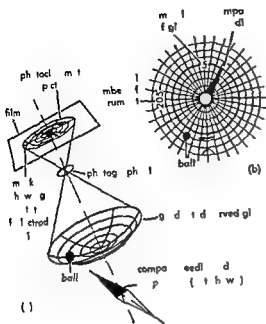


Fig 1 (a) P p l f t f th S h l m b g  
Ph tocl om te (b) Typ f ord b t d with th  
S h l m b g Ph t l m t (S h l m b g W l l  
S r v y g C p)

Schl mb g Ph t cl om t and th S w l l  
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dev t n m ment e t r p t n d o u t f  
th well F m th s r f d t a t p a b l e t  
p l t q u a c a t l y t h c o e f t h e w e l l  
l the Schl mb g Ph tocl m t e r t h d v i a  
t o f o m t h e r t c a l i d a t d b y s m l l m e t a l  
b a l l w h h l l t n p r t g l a b w l g r a d  
i d n l d g r e e T h d t n f t h e d e  
t a s u m t h d t e d b y m a g n t m p s  
W t h t h t m e t p e d d b y e l e t t  
a l a b l t h e p t i f t h e m p a d t e l  
b l l p h t g p h d n 35 m m f i l m b p a  
t f l e c t l t l t h r f w h h t m  
l i g h t t h n t m e t d a p t h e m e r  
h i t e A f t t h p t t h k t h e f i l m  
m d t n w p o t P t b t a k t  
t f l t p m t C o r l t i f t h  
p t u e w t h t h d p t h t w h h t h y e t k

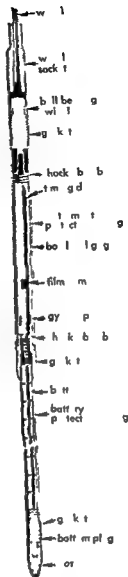


Fig 3 V r t c l t h g h S r w l l c l g p h  
(S p y S W l l S y g C)

(k n w n b y t h l g h f t h e s u p e d g c a b l e)  
y l l a m s u r e f t h e m g t d a n d d r c t  
d i t o o f t h e h o l e a s a f u n t n f d p t h

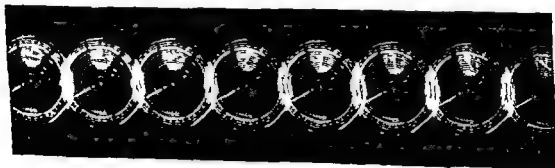
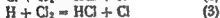
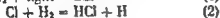


Fig 2 M t i o -p i c t f i l m o d m d b y t h S r w l l c l g p h (S p y S W l l S r v y g C)

species into atoms ions molecules and radicals changes in the acidic or basic strength of the light absorbing species polymerization reactions germicidal action sunburn and tanning

In its broadest sense photochemistry may properly be said to deal with the study of any of these processes In a narrower sense however photochemistry deals only with the chemical reactions brought about by absorbed light This includes studies of the kinetics and mechanisms of reactions such as that between H and Cl to produce HCl In this case only Cl<sub>2</sub> absorbs visible and near ultra violet light and the reaction proceeds mainly as follows



The net quantum yield for this chain reaction is over 1 000 000 under favorable conditions

**Light absorption** The fraction of the light absorbed by a stated component or species in a system requires a knowledge of the relative concentrations and light absorbing powers of all the species in the system which absorb a significant amount of light Concentrations for this purpose are stated in terms of the number of light absorbing species per unit volume for example in moles per liter Light absorbing powers are expressed in terms of a constant which is characteristic of the stated species in the stated environment at the stated wavelength such as the molar absorptivity  $\epsilon = A/c$  where  $A = \log_{10} I_0/I$   $c$  is the concentration of the stated species in the stated environment and  $l$  is the length of the light path over which the light intensity of the stated wavelength decreases from an initial intensity  $I_0$  to  $I$  because light is absorbed by the stated species See SPECTROPHOTOMETRIC ANALYSIS

**Light sources** The interpretation of a photochemical reaction is greatly simplified when concentrations are uniform throughout the reacting mixture This requires that the light fill the whole system and be weakly absorbed or that there be adequate mixing especially in the parts of the system absorbing most of the light

Light intensities light absorbing powers and quantum yields sometimes change rapidly as a function of wavelength so that quantitative photochemical studies are best carried out with monochromatic light or with light consisting of a suitably small range of wavelengths

Monochromatic light is conveniently obtained by employing atomic light sources which emit the desired wavelength as part of a discontinuous spectrum The desired light must be sufficiently different in wavelength from the other emitted rays so that it can be isolated easily at a relatively high intensity A common light source is the mercury arc lamp

Monochromatic light intensities obtained from most light sources are usually low Therefore the success of a photochemical study often depends

upon the proper design of an apparatus for isolating and bringing to bear upon a sufficiently small volume of the photosensitive system most of the light of the desired wavelength emitted from the light source Monochromatic light is isolated successfully for photochemical studies by means of filters or monochromators and occasionally by means of focal isolation

Whenever possible advantage is taken of the fact that the photosensitive system may absorb a suitably small range of wavelengths of the light incident upon it although the latter may consist of a very wide range of wavelengths Under the conditions however the evaluation of the light absorbed by the system is especially difficult

Measurement of the light absorbed by a system has been accomplished by means of chemical actinometers bolometers thermopiles and phototubes with proper auxiliary equipment The uranyl oxalate and ferric oxalate actinometers are convenient and reliable

**Energy relationships** It is sometimes convenient to think of a photochemical reaction in a liquid system as being initiated in a photochemical cluster not unlike the critical complex of thermal reaction There is however one important difference namely that the products of a photochemical reaction may contain as chemical energy a significant fraction of the energy of the absorbed light even when the reaction is essentially complete whereas thermal reactions do not take place to any significant extent if the free energy of the products is greater than the free energy of the reactant The latter is also true of photochemical reactions when one includes the energy of the absorbed light as part of the free energy of the reactants

The elucidation of photochemical reactions is often easier in terms of changes in net quantum yields than of changes in rate constant Although it is often possible to identify the part of the light absorbing species responsible for the light absorption and thereby obtain information about intramolecular as well as intermolecular energy transfer processes and accompanying thermal reaction See FREE RADICAL LIGHT LUMINESCENCE PHOTOGRAPHY PHOTOSYNTHESIS RADIATION CHEMISTRY SPECTROSCOPY [LJH]

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## Photoclinometer

A term applied to directional surveying instruments which record photographically the direction and magnitude of well deviations from the vertical Two instruments of this type are in wide use the

the curr. at 150 to 100 mg (say 4 min) a much  
more compl. xph. nom. n. called secondary ph. t.  
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uch. b. r. ium. x. d. See. EXCITON.

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ap. th. gh. th. fac. d. t. ph. to.  
m. n. is.

Ph. t. d. i. n. th. c. que. t. on. m. i.  
t. l. h. l. d. e. s. p. l. y. imp. i. t. r. l. i. th.  
ch. t. g. pl. p. o. c. e. S. Ph. o. t. o. c. r. e. t. y.

Germanium l. i. e. s. a. u. n. f. ph. toc.  
d. t. i. g. r. m. s. m. t. y. c. l. i. m. t. l. m.  
n. l. i. o. c. u. f. ph. ton. g. n. the. f. u. d. a.  
m. t. l. i. t. i. p. r. l. l. rpt. l. nd. Th. s.  
t. i. b. edge. al. ab. o. t. o. r. v. i. th. s. f. a. d.  
a. d. t. i. d. t. n. ly. th. gh. h. gh. ph. t. n.

en. g. r. es. in. th. i. bl. a. d. ultra. so. let. reg. on. s. Elec.  
tr. des. a. e. connect. d. t. the. ger. man. ium. crystal.  
to. f. u. r. a. h. an. elect. ic. field. Fl. ct. r. on. s. r. p. o. s. i. t. e. hole.  
can. p. a. s. s. o. m. the. con. n. ct. ions. into. the. c. r. y. stal.  
and. an. el. t. e. cu. re. t. f. l. w. s. th. ough. the. sp. e. c. i. m. en.  
n. the. dark. When. th. r. y. tal. s. illuminated. addi.  
t. ion. al. l. ct. ion. and. h. l. s. ar. r. e. at. ed. in. equal. num.  
b. r. s. In. gene. al. both. the. m. ex. c. e. s. s. current. carr. i. e. r. s.  
mo. e. in. th. ele. tr. ic. field. a. d. e. n. t. r. i. b. u. t. e. to. the. j. o. t.  
t. e. c. n. d. i. t. y. An. impo. r. ta. n. t. con. i. d. e. r. at. i. on. is. that.  
the. m. p. l. e. m. t. contain. them. i. equal. numbers.  
(this. is. call. d. th. cha. ge. n. e. u. t. al. i. ty. m. nd. u. ction.) o. th.  
er. w. e. pr. h. b. i. t. e. l. ct. i. s. fields. w. uld. b. u. l. d. up.  
Thus. if. an. lect. r. n. lea. e. th. am. p. l. e. th. ough. ne.  
lect. r. ode. an. the. elect. r. on. enters. at. the. o. th. e. r. d.  
Al. t. r. o. at. i. e. ly. an. lect. r. n. nd. hole. may. ann. h. late.  
n. an. th. r. s. r. comb. n. t. i. n. p. r. e. s. s. D. rect. re.  
c. mb. nat. n. is. p. l. e. but. not. ve. y. pr. b. a. b. l. e. Al.  
m. s. t. H. of. the. recomb. at. i. n. t. ke. place. at. def. ct. s.  
o. m. pu. i. t. e. s. called. recomb. nat. n. ce. t. r. me.  
t. w. h. h. m. y. be. at. th. am. p. l. ur. face. If. the. s.  
lum. i. at. s. t. r. n. d. H. the. con. n. tr. at. n. f. ex. c. e. s.  
el. t. r. on. s. and. l. s. (and. the. el. e. ph. t. e. n.  
du. t. i. v. e. ur. rent.) d. appear. s. a. functio. of. time.  
in. ne. p. n. ent. al. w. y. l. t. de. r. a. e. by. a. fact. of.  
 $I = 718$  in. a. c. c. e. r. t. i. c. w. s. h. s. aff. d. the.  
l. i. f. e. t. m. e. f. o. el. t. on. hol. p. a. r. t. s. time. i. deter.  
m. n. ed. by. the. n. mb. r. and. type. of. e. omb. nat. n.  
e. t. e. s. in. the. parti. u. l. s. sample. F. r. r. y. pure.  
ger. m. ium. r. y. s. t. l. at. rd. r. y. temp. r. t. u. e. s. th.  
p. a. i. l. i. f. e. m. e. s. l. m. cor. h. h. r.

To. c. l. u. l. t. the. mag. n. t. u. d. e. of. the. phot. o. d. u. c.  
t. e. c. n. t. n. e. n. i. ent. to. n. s. de. a. cube. of.  
ge. m. n. s. m. l. e. m. a. d. e. with. el. ct. o. d. es. on. tw.  
p. h. o. t. e. f. e. If.  $\frac{1}{2}$  ph. o. t. /s. at. ab. r. h. ed. uni.  
formly. in. th. s. olu. me. the. umb. of. x. c. f.  
elect. on. nd. h. l. a. h. e. a. steady. n. c. e. nt. at. on.  
A. s. (f. each. c. r. r. e. r. type.) The. number. f. elec.  
tro. P. flow. ng. p. e. o. d. th. r. gh. the. battery. m.  
the. exte. nal. c. r. c. t. i.

$$P = VNi(\mu + \mu_n)$$

wh. re. f. i. th. batte. y. ol. t. a. and.  $i$  and  $\mu_n$  are  
th. m. h. i. t. e. of. th. el. t. s. and. h. l. p. e.  
t. i. e. ly. The. t.  $G = P/h$  d. e. m. n. the. s. i.  
ty. nd. e. l. l. d. the. ph. t. o. d. t. ga. n. fac. t. r.  
Now. th. tr. t. i. m. e. T. r. q. e. d. i. o. ele. t. n. t.  
tra. e. r. e. the. g. m. n. m. m. p. l. e.  $1/\mu$  that. for.  
hole. i.  $T_h = 1/\mu_h$  Th. the. g. m. y. be. ex.  
p. r. e. d. s.

$$G = i \left( \frac{1}{T} + \frac{1}{T'} \right)$$

If. the. ger. m. n. u. m. e. be. i. t. rd. n. ary. tempera. t. u.  
wh. th.  $s = 10^4$  cc. and.  $i = 1$  It.  $G$  at. t. s.

Ph. t. ond. t. of. th. s. me. ge. = l. k. i. d. o.  
u. n. i. c. n. nd. i. c. t. n. omp. nd. s. h.  
nd. mant. mon. d.

H. gh. g. n. ph. t. ond. ct. s. s. c. wh. n. l.  
t. o. l. l. t. ap. e. p. e. nt. = c. y. tal. of. g.  
m. n. u. m. F. x. m. pl. i. kel. t. m. d. i. h. s.

The Surwell Clinograph also operates electrically but is powered by batteries contained in the instrument. The deviation from the vertical is indicated by a box level gage and the direction in azimuth by a gyroscopic compass permitting its use in ideal tool pipe. This operation is not possible when a magnetic compass is used unless the pipe is made of special nonmagnetic steel. Since the instrument also contains a watch and a dial thermometer a simultaneous record of amount and direction of deviation, temperature and time can be made on 16 mm film. Readings are taken both descending and ascending at regular intervals which are preset on the instrument before it is lowered on a wire line into the well thus providing a check on accuracy. Level gages having maximum inclinations of 20, 40 and 55 degrees respectively are provided to be used according to the magnitude of deviation.

[HCB 50]

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## Photoconductive cell

A device for detecting or measuring electromagnetic radiation by variation of the conductivity of a substance (called a photoconductor) upon absorption of the radiation by this substance.

To detect or measure the radiation the cell is connected in series with an electrical source and a galvanometer. The current through the cell is a function of the intensity of the radiation falling on the cell. The galvanometer measures the current.

Photoconductors can be classified into the elemental type, such as selenium, iodine, boron, diamond, germanium, and silicon, and the compound type, such as the sulfide, selenide, and tellurides of lead, thallium, and cadmium. Each of the materials must be doped with the proper amount of a selected impurity.

The photoconductor is usually prepared in the form of a thin film by evaporation of the material under vacuum, by chemical precipitation, or by sintering of the powdered material.

Cadmium sulfide cells are extensively used in the visible spectrum for industrial applications because of their high sensitivity. However, they have a certain inertia, and their response depends upon previous exposure to light (hysteresis). They also generate a relatively high current when not illuminated (dark current).

The antimony sulfide cells are less sensitive than the cadmium sulfide cell, but their response time is much shorter and they do not display any hysteresis.

Lead sulfide and lead selenide cells are particularly sensitive to infrared radiation and their sensitivity toward the higher wavelength increases at low temperature. For measurement in the far infrared, certain cells are cooled with liquid hydrogen ( $-250^{\circ}\text{C}$ ).

Photoconductive cells are characterized by their sensitivity in the infrared (1-5 micron) and their

short response time. They are used for high speed recording, high resolution spectroscopy, television electrophotography, and as infrared detectors. For more detailed information see INFRARED DETECTOR. See also PHOTOCONDUCTIVITY, PHOTOELECTRIC DEVICES.

[J J R 0]

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## Photoconductivity

The increase in electrical conductivity displayed by many nonmetallic solids when they absorb electromagnetic radiation. The radiation may lie in any part of the spectrum from the infrared to the x-ray and  $\gamma$ -ray region. Photoconduction may proceed by several different mechanisms depending on the type, the composition, and the crystal perfection of the solid involved. Photoconduction finds considerable practical application in television cameras, infrared detectors, light meters, and indirectly in the photographic process.

**Alkali halides.** Photoconductivity due to color centers in alkali halides (frequently called primary photoconduction) occurs in crystals such as common rock salt (sodium chloride) if they have been heated in sodium or other alkali metal vapor. This treatment gives rise to imperfections called color centers which color the crystal. The color center are lattice sites at which electrons take the place of missing negative ions, the color center absorbing visible light (see COLOR CENTERS). As a result, the electrons are set free and they are set in motion when an electric field is applied to the crystal. This motion induces electric charges on the electrode that apply the field. Current flows in the external circuit even though no charges pass from the electrode into the crystal.

After being set free by the light, the electrons usually move only a short distance before they are stopped. This happens mainly at other color centers. The distance over which the electrons move is called the range and it increases as the applied field is made stronger. The photoconduction is approximately proportional to the field strength as long as the electron range (in a typical case  $10^{-4}$  cm) is shorter than the sample length. When this is no longer true, the freed electrons move to the end of the sample. At this point the photoconduction is constant with increasing applied field.

This photoconduction is excited most easily by photon energies lying in the optical absorption peak of the color center. For potassium chloride a typical alkali halide, this peak is centered near  $1.6 \text{ eV}$  in the red region of the spectrum. Primary photoconductivity can also occur, however, at higher photon energies  $11.0$  to  $2.5 \text{ eV}$  in the blue and ultraviolet spectral region, the electrons ejected from the color centers have enough energy to escape through the crystal surface. They then initiate a photochemical process. PHOTOEMISSION.

Primary photoconductivity usually occurs for only a relatively short time in an alkali halide. If

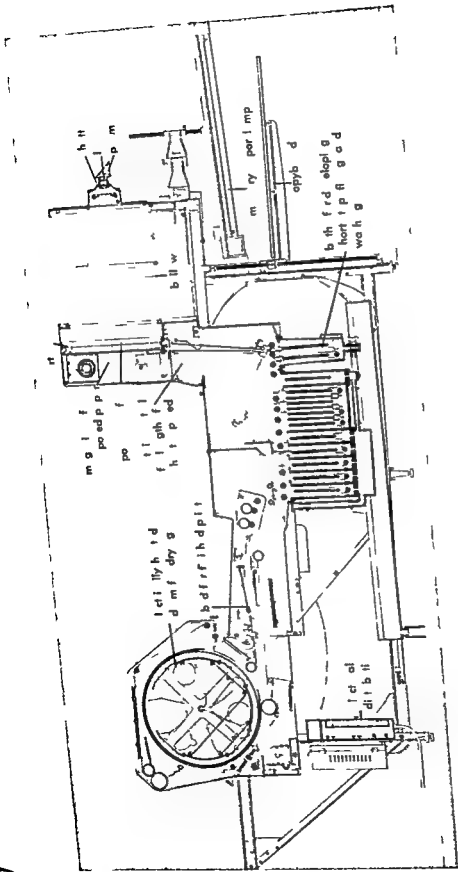


Fig 1 D g m f i p i m i c p h t p l (p h i i c p)



added as impurities behave as hole traps in germanium near the temperature of liquid nitrogen. If an appropriate amount of arsenic is also present, each Ni atom becomes a doubly negative ion  $\text{Ni}^{2-}$ . Because of its strong negative electric charge, it repels electrons and attracts positive holes. Thus, when illumination sets both holes and electrons free in the sample, the  $\text{Ni}^{2-}$  ions quickly capture holes. Accordingly, the doubly negative  $\text{Ni}^{2-}$  becomes singly negative  $\text{Ni}^{-}$ . It is still negative and it still repels electrons. Thus, recombination of electrons with the captured holes is drastically reduced and the hole is said to be trapped. It is immobile and does not contribute to photoconduction. However, for each trapped hole, a mobile electron is held in the crystal to preserve the condition of charge neutrality. Recombination occurs after a comparatively long time, called the free electron lifetime  $\tau$ . It determines the speed with which the photoconductor responds to changes in illumination. The photoconductive gain is in this case  $t/T$ , where  $T$  is as before, is the electron transit time. At the low temperature considered here,  $T$  is about 10 sec if the sample is a cube of unit volume and if 1 volt is applied by the battery. Thus, the gain becomes 10, and for every photon absorbed in the sample, a great many electrons flow through the external circuit. The gain increases as the applied voltage increases, but complications prevent it from increasing indefinitely.

High gain photoconductivity of the same general character occurs in many other materials, such as cadmium sulfide, cadmium selenide, and lead sulfide. It was recognized in many of these before being studied in germanium. It is not understood quite as precisely as in germanium because the traps are not yet as well identified and because it is more difficult to control the composition and perfection of the crystals. On the other hand, high gain can occur in cadmium sulfide, for instance, at ordinary temperatures and is important for application in photoconductive devices. For the germanium photoconductors, a high sensitivity or gain corresponds to a proportionately long response time. In more complex photoconductors, the response may be sluggish even when the gain is low. This usually means that both electrons and holes are being trapped frequently in complex fashion.

In germanium and other semiconductor extrinsic excitation of photoconductivity occurs when radiation ejects electrons or holes directly from impurities into the conduction band or the valence band. Photon energies may be much less than those in the intrinsic optical absorption range, and the photoconductor may respond much farther into the infrared.

In certain cases, the condition of charge neutrality may not be satisfied in semiconductors. The photoconductivity then behaves in a more complicated manner than outlined here. See ABSORPTION (ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION), LUMINESCENCE [LA].

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## Photocopying processes

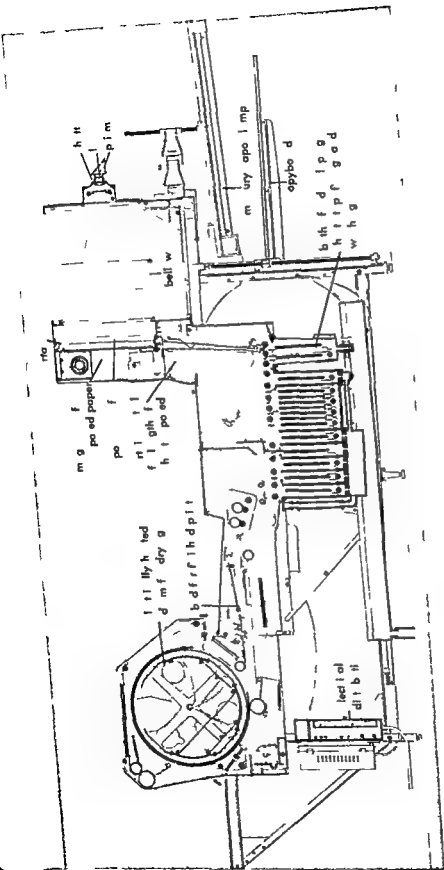
This means by which a copy is created on a sensitive surface (generally paper, film, or metal plate) by the action of light. The term is generally applied only to documentary reproduction, distinct from the photographing of gross objects (portraiture, for example), from cinematography and from other highly specialized applications of photography, although these applications frequently overlap or are combined with photocopying of documents. The document to be photocopied must already have been prepared by other applications of photography, by manuscript or by typewriter. A document in this case is classified as either a line drawing or continuous tone illustration or a combination. Some photocopying processes do not handle tone satisfactorily.

Photocopying offers practical printing methods for the production of a single copy or a limited number of copies or for the production of a stencil or master from which to run off larger numbers by use of diazo paper or offset lithography. It falls into several chemically distinct processes distinguished by the chemistry of the photographic material and its development and fixation. Several sensitive materials are used—silver halide salts, diazonium salts, and ferric salt. Newer methods of exposure apply infrared radiation, electrostatics, and electrolysis. The last three forms, along with the diazo when developed by exposure to ammonia gas, are referred to as dry processes as opposed to the more common wet processes which use liquids. The basic camera techniques of photocopying are not so different as is the mechanical equipment developed for use with the many photographic materials and the vast variety of their chemical characteristics.

For a discussion of the development of photography and a full description of specific photographic materials, see PHOTOGRAPHIC MATERIALS, PHOTOGRAPHY.

Photocopying is now applied in business offices and libraries to solve problems of industrial production as well as in sophisticated data processing systems. Advantages of photocopying are its photographic accuracy except for occasional problems with color reduction and enlargement, ability of some processes to speed in most instances, space saving in the case of microfilm, economy of labor and materials over any other short-run copying process, convenience of handling the thin flexible material as opposed to letterpress type or electrolytic plates, simplicity of machine operation by untrained staff for certain processes, and flexibility as achieved by the combination of photocopying processes with other printing processes.

Photocopying processes may be somewhat arbitrarily divided into even classes: silver halide photocopying, transfer processes, thermography, (thermo-



F 0 1 D 9 m f i p m t i phot p (p h t i t C p)





metallic compound in the text ink to transform the radiant energy to heat and to effect the desired chemical change on the substance laminated between the transparent sheet of paper and the white waxy backing. The heat sensitive substance undergoes chemical change and produces a black image lacking maximum sharpness. It is a completely dry operation completed in about 4 sec. finished copies remain sensitive to heat and can become increasingly dark. It does not satisfactorily handle tone and the print is not as sharp as copies by most other processes because of the difficulty of focusing the long wavelengths of heat. For inexpensive short use, clean and rapid copying of correspondence or printed textual matter for informational purposes, this process excels.

**Plan copying.** This is a simple contact operation using a number of possible chemical processes to print from a translucent original or by direct positive paper from opaque originals. Materials used are so insensitive to light that powerful arc lamps must be used for exposure. There is less of the usual wastage of materials in this process than in others. The photocopying machine may be a glass tube box, or rotary drum device with a large surface to accommodate architectural plans, engineering drawings, charts, maps, or other such material. Of the many processes, the three following are common.

**Brownprint** (also called *epia negative* or *van dyke*) is an intermediate for making prints introduced in 1895. The material is paper sensitized with ferric iron and silver salts, the first ingredient being the light sensitive material. Exposure reduces the iron salt and when developed by immersion in water, the ferrous salt reduces the silver salt to metallic silver. Washing with a hypo solution removes any unreduced silver and leaves white lines on a brown background. From this negative a brown line print can be made or a Phototracing can be made on paper having a wash off silver gelatin emulsion, the image of which can be erased with a wet eraser and additions made in ink.

**Blueprint** (also called *cyanotype*) dating from 1842 is a ferropurpate paper sensitized with a mixture of ferric salt and potassium ferricyanide developed by immersion in water. The result is white lines on a background of Prussian blue. As with the brownprint, the color of line and background can be altered by printing from a translucent negative or as to make a blue line print.

**Whiteprint** (also called *dyeline* or *diaz print*) dating from the 1920s is produced on diazo paper or film, the emulsion containing a diazo compound and a coupling or activating component. The process is based on sensitivity to ultraviolet light and development is by ammonia vapors or a liquid application (Fig. 3). The use of this method to produce translucent film originals from which multiple prints can be inexpensively made on paper has been a highly developed technique. Indeed despite the fact that the image will deteriorate somewhat over a period of years, this process has largely super-

eded the familiar blueprint chiefly because of better appearance, easier use for notation, somewhat better quality and comparable cost.

It should be added that small diazo processes machines are available to copy letter size materials and pages from bound books. When limitations imposed by the material to be copied can be overcome, the excellent sharpness of a diazo print and its exceedingly low cost make it competitive with the transfer process.

**Electrostatic processes.** There are three distinct dry photoelectrical processes producing positive copies without a negative intermediary. Xerography was invented in 1937. Electrofax was announced in 1954 and Smokeprinting was patented in 1958.

**Xerography** is a printing method using a photoconductive plate having an electrically conductive backing material coated with vitreous selenium. When the plate is precharged to a 6000-volt green potential by a corona discharge which imparts a uniform electrostatic charge, the coating becomes sensitive to light and the charge is dissipated to a ground by light rays reflected from the white parts of the document being copied. The utilized plate may be exposed by contact, by projection or in a camera to achieve enlargement or reduction. The latent image is the remaining positive charge which attracts negatively charged black powder (a mixture of a carrier and a resinous pigment) which is then heated and passed to paper on which it is fused. A resolution adequate for most textual matter can be achieved and recent developments have improved the handling of continuous tone. Experimental work has been done on the use of color and in the depositing of images on copper laminate and on clear acetate sheets for lantern slides. Besides its use for enlarging microfilm, some of its important uses are for making translucent negatives for diazo printing, paper and metal plates for offset lithography and masters for print duplicating (Fig. 4).

**Electrofax** is similar to the xerographic process except that it substitutes an electrically charged paper on which the copy is printed for the selenium coated plate. The paper is coated with a thin layer of special zinc oxide in a resin binder and is sensitive to light only after having been given a negative electrostatic charge upon entering the machine. It can therefore be stored without deterioration for long periods before being used. The finished print is exceedingly stable. Experimental work has been done on many applications similar to those of xerography as well as on satisfactory treatment of half tone and continuous tone production of relief printing plate, use as a dry offset process and on electronic typesetting at 2000 characters per second under control of magnetic tape or punched paper tape. The process appears to be intrinsically more flexible than does xerography.

**Smokeprinting** is a process which deposits electrically charged particles on paper or other material. The paper is held behind a sheet of glass



1955) is a plastic emulsion on a polyester base. Upon exposure to ultraviolet light the photosensitive compound in the background area decomposes in the thermoplastic vehicle with one of the products being nitrogen gas. When the film is developed by heat (for 2 sec at 255 F) the high pressure created by the gas blows microscopic air sacs and fixation by ultraviolet light stabilizes the compound by permitting the nitrogen now created in the text area to diffuse out of the emulsion in about 8 hours. The air sacs serve to scatter the light falling on them during projection for reading. Where they do not exist to scatter the light the compound casts a shadow which forms the image.

Microfilm is very inexpensive of materials is valued as a substitute for deteriorating paper and for the space and weight it saves over full size copies is advantageous as a flexible intermediate and has the physical properties of other silver and diazo copies. In any application such as those described below detail will be lost increasingly the more distant the generation is from the original (that is original copied to negative copied to positive copied to a second negative equals three generations removed this loss being estimated as roughly 30% in each generation).

Equipment for microfilm is specialized because of the exacting requirements. Cameras have exceptionally fine lenses and may have a flat bed or rotary feed and be manual or automatic in operation. Similarly processing equipment varies from hand fed deep tanks to large automatic machines adapted from those designed for motion picture film. Reading machines are also available in considerable variety.

Besides the advantages of microfilm in its own right other applications and specialized techniques have brought microfilm to a high state of technical development. These may be classified as enlargement techniques, publishing techniques and data processing applications.

Enlargement printing both individually of single frames and automatically and continuously of rolls of frames can be accomplished by any projection process. Enlargement is possible from frames selected while viewing microfilm on a reading machine by the inclusion in the machine of a device for producing an electrolytic copy or a silver halide copy developed in a monobath. The most advanced automatic enlarging machine is the Copyflo which was first available in 1956. This xerographic enlarger makes photocopies from negative or positive 16 mm or 35 mm microfilm as well as from original documents at the rate of 20 ft/min on rolls of unenitized paper up to 11 in wide.

Publishing of opaque microtexts is accomplished by three variant edition processes. Microcards proposed in 1944 are photographic prints  $7\frac{1}{4} \times 12\frac{1}{4}$  cm in size prepared from 16 mm or 35 mm film commonly at a reduction of 20 diameter with indexing data legible to the naked eye at the top of the card. Reader Microprint is a somewhat similar product on  $6 \times 9$  in cards but is prepared from

microfilm and printed by offset Microlex; similar to the Microprint in appearance but is a photographic print from a sheet negative (microfiche) made on a step and repeat camera and two positives containing consecutive pages are laminated back to back. Microfiche is the name applied to transparent forms of microtext in various sizes of sheet film. It is not an edition process.

Data processing has used microfilm in the unitized strip and roll form. Unitized film is roll film cut and handled in units of single frame whereas a film strip is roll film handled in length of 2-10 frames. diazo film is commonly used for making copies. Both unitized and strip film are commonly mounted in or on cards having indexing information which is readable to the naked eye and if the card has a rectangular hole through which the film may be viewed it is called an aperture card. Two variations using a different technique are Microtrip which is an opaque paper strip printed from microfilm and having a moisture type adhesive on the back and Microtape which is similarly an opaque strip but has a pressure sensitive adhesive. Much special equipment is available for mounting viewing enlarging and duplicating film mounted on aperture card and use of such card with tabulating machines has become a common application of microfilm. In unitized form film has reached its most sophisticated application in the Minicard item which automatically searches unit of film 35 mm by 16 mm in size containing both textual matter reduced to 60 diameters and digital information for photoelectric eye detection. Roll film is also being applied in data processing systems an early device is the Rapid Selector developed from principles suggested by Vannevar Bush in 1945 and a more highly developed machine is the FLIP (Film Library Instantaneous Pre-entation) which upon instruction from a keyboard punched card or magnetic tape automatically locates and projects for viewing coded frames within 1600 feet of film. See PRINTING [p.c.w.]

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## Photodiode

A semiconductor two terminal component with electrical characteristics that are light sensitive. All semiconductor diodes are light sensitive to some degree unless enclosed in opaque packages but only those designed specifically to enhance the light sensitivity are called photodiodes.

Most photodiodes consist of semiconductor p-n junctions housed in a container designed to collect and focus the ambient light close to the junction. They are normally biased in the reverse or blocking direction the current therefore is quite small in the dark. When they are illuminated the current





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Publishing of opaque microtexts is accomplished by three variant edition processes. Microcards proposed in 1944 are photographic prints  $2\frac{1}{2} \times 1\frac{1}{2}$  in size prepared from 16-mm or 35-mm film common at a reduction of 20 diameter with indexing data legible to the naked eye at the top of the card. Readex Microprint is a somewhat similar product on  $6 \times 9$  in card but is prepared from

microfilm and printed by offset Microlex; similar to the Microprint in appearance but is a photographic print from a sheet negative (microfiche) made on a step and repeat camera and two positives containing consecutive pages are laminated back to back. Microfiche is the name applied to transparent forms of microtext in various sizes of sheet film; it is not an edition process.

Data processing has used microfilm in the unitized strip and roll form. Unitized film is roll film cut and handled in units of single frames whereas a film strip is roll film handled in lengths of 2 to 10 frames. Diazo film is commonly used for making copies. Both unitized and strip film are commonly mounted in or on cards having indexing information which is readable to the naked eye and if the card has a rectangular hole through which the film may be viewed it is called an aperture card. Two variations using a different technique are Microtrip which is an opaque paper strip printed from microfilm and having a moisture type adhesive on the back and Microtape which is similarly an opaque strip but has a pressure sensitive adhesive. Much special equipment is available for mounting, viewing, enlarging, and duplicating film mounted on aperture cards and use of such card with tabulating machines has become a common application of microfilm. In unitized form film has reached its most sophisticated application in the Minicard system which automatically searches units of film 36 mm by 16 mm in size containing both textual matter reduced at 60 diameters and digital information for photoelectric eye selection. Roll film is also being applied in data processing systems; an early device was the Rapid Selector developed from principles suggested by Vannevar Bush in 1945 and a more highly developed machine is the FLIP (Film Library Instantaneous Presentation) which upon instruction from a keyboard punched card or magnetic tape automatically locates and projects for viewing coded frames within 1600 feet of film. See PRINTING [p.c.w.]

**Bibliography:** H. W. Ballou, *Guide to Microreproduction Equipment* 1959. C. M. Lewis and W. H. Offenhaus, *Microreproducing Industrial and Library Applications* 1956. *Manual on Document Reproduction and Selection*, FID Publ. 264 1953 and continuation. H. R. Verry, *Document Copying and Reproduction Processes* 1958.

## Photodiode

A semiconductor two-terminal component with electrical characteristics that are light sensitive. All semiconductor diodes are light sensitive to some degree unless enclosed in opaque packages but only those designed specifically to enhance the light sensitivity are called photodiodes.

Most photodiodes consist of semiconductor p-n junctions housed in a container designed to collect and focus the ambient light close to the junction. They are normally biased in reverse or in the direction of the current flow. When the



ber of fringe changes (fringe order) at that point is observed. Special equipment is sometimes employed to obtain partial fringe orders and to sharpen vague fringe boundaries. The fringe order is directly related by a calibrated constant to the difference of the principal stresses at that point.

**Determination of principal stresses** Shear stresses can be related mathematically to the difference of the principal stresses thereby relating shear stresses directly to fringe order. High shear stresses often cause the material to yield or fail so that a point of large fringe order indicates a point of potential failure. In many applications of photoelasticity a knowledge of shear stress is all that is needed. This fact makes photoelasticity a simple and direct tool for investigation of complex stress systems. However if principal stresses and their directions are required additional experimentation is necessary as described later.

**Isoclinic fringes** are a different set of interference patterns made by using white light removing the quarter wave plates and rotating the polarizer and analyzer a fixed number of degrees. These fringes represent lines making known angles with the principal planes of stress.

Stress trajectories are lines of principal stress directions over the model obtained graphically from the isoclinic fringes. Stress trajectories are not lines of constant stress.

The determination of the principal stresses requires additional information which may be obtained in several ways. Principal stresses are determined analytically by differences of the shear stresses based on equilibrium equations. This procedure requires a numerical point by point study of the model utilizing the shear stresses and stress trajectories. Principal stresses can be found analytically or experimentally by solution of Laplace's equation of elasticity (see ELASTICITY). In principle this procedure supplies equations pertaining to the sum of the principal stresses at any point in the model. Utilizing equations for the difference of the principal stresses from the isochromatic fringe orders the stresses may be found by solving the two equations for the two principal stresses. Principal stresses are found experimentally by measuring the changes in thickness of the model under stress. Because thickness changes caused by the Poisson's ratio effect are minute a sensitive measuring device such as an optical interferometer is needed although direct reading thickness gauges are sometimes used. The interferometer produces fringe patterns called isopachic fringes. This method essentially provides information regarding the sum of the principal stresses as with Laplace's equation. Another experimental method is to pass polarized light obliquely to the surface of the model. The relative retardations of the light produce interference fringes. These oblique fringes can be related to the principal stresses differently from those obtained by isochromatic fringes. Using the information on stresses from the isochro-

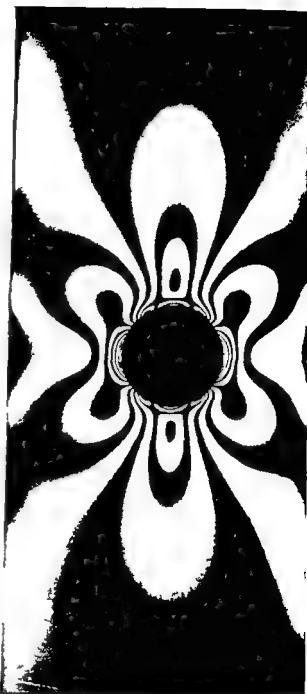


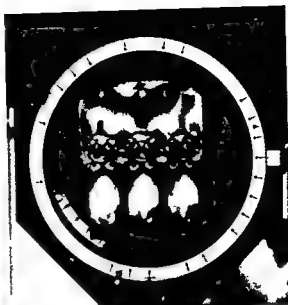
Fig 2 illustrates the general form for plots with holes (From M M F. *Heat Transfer Analysis of 2-Wire 1948*)

matics in conjunction with the oblique relations, the principal stresses may be obtained

With care stresses determined by photoelasticity are 98% accurate. With stresses determined strains may be easily computed by elastic relation.

**Three dimensional measurements** Three dimensional photoelasticity is also possible although the technique and stress-strain relationships are more involved than for planar objects.

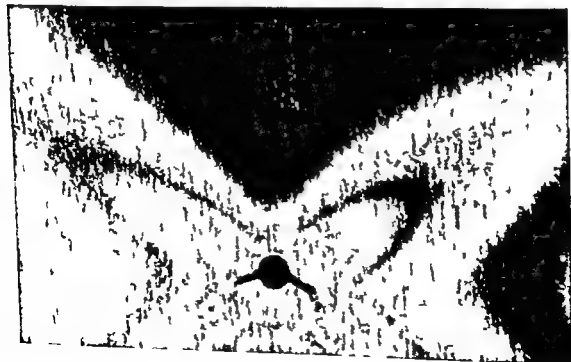
The frozen stress method is well suited for three-dimension studies. Certain optically anisotropic materials such as Bakelite when annealed in a stress-free condition retain the deformation and birefringent characteristics of the initially stressed state when the load is removed. A three-dimen-



Typ l r p H pl ic mod l  
w d d p l d l g h t (B h & L m b  
Opt l C m p y)

St t t pl t model f oah  
f t m t b b l d d m l d ope  
t g d t (W t g h E l t C  
p t )

Si d t b t d l h t d t w w t s g p h t t t h q Pl t  
ph t l t t g l l t l p m l l w t d y f t l m t l p t t h t h l  
pl t m d l Th p m t y l l f g t h t y f t h w t l d t h g h t r  
t h t g l l H l l M m l l l l l l )









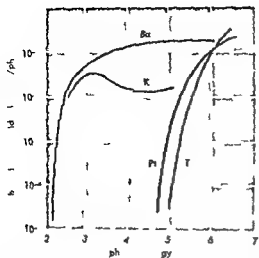


Fig 3 Spectral distribution of the photoelectric yield for various materials. The curves show the yield for Ba, K, Pt, and T. The yield is plotted against the photon energy in eV. The yield is highest for Ba and K at low photon energies, and for Pt and T at higher photon energies.

It is concluded that the internal photoelectric effect is the most important factor in the photoelectric effect. The yield is highest for Ba and K at low photon energies, and for Pt and T at higher photon energies. The yield is also highest for Ba and K at low photon energies, and for Pt and T at higher photon energies.

The fact that the photoelectric yield is highest for Ba and K at low photon energies, and for Pt and T at higher photon energies, is due to the fact that the photoelectric yield is highest for Ba and K at low photon energies, and for Pt and T at higher photon energies. The yield is also highest for Ba and K at low photon energies, and for Pt and T at higher photon energies.

proportional to the quantity  $(h\nu - \phi)^2$  when the photon energy  $h\nu$  is within about 1 eV of the threshold energy  $\phi$ . Figure 3 shows a graph of the spectral dependence of the photoelectric yield for some typical emitters. Figure 4 shows typical energy distribution curves of photoelectric yields from materials of the order of  $10^{-4}$  electron per incident photon when  $h\nu - \phi = 1$  eV. Photoelectric threshold energies range from a few eV to values such as 5 eV for platinum. They vary for different types of crystal faces, the same crystal and are considerably different to millivolts for adsorbed gases.

**Semiconductors** The photoelectric behavior of semiconductors such as germanium or silicon differs from that of metals. As shown in Fig. 5 the electron is a direct emitting emitter completely occupies a closed band of energies which lies just below a forbidden energy band (see BAND THEORY OF SOLID). The electron has quite different from the electron in metals. As a result the photoelectric threshold energy  $\phi$  is larger than the electron work function  $\phi$ . Thus a semiconductor exhibits a higher photoelectric threshold energy than a metal having the same work function. An example of this is shown for the metal platinum and the semiconductor tellurium in Fig. 3. Both the particular platinum and the tellurium (T) have the same electron work function about 4.8 eV. The photoelectric threshold of the platinum is equal to the work function, whereas that of the tellurium is considerably higher. Another difference between semiconductors and metals is evident from Fig. 3. The photoelectric yield of

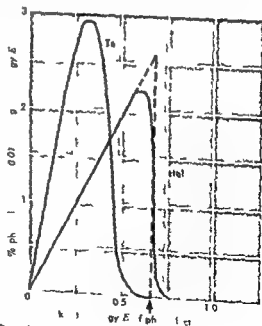


Fig 4 Energy distribution of photoelectric yield for various materials. The curves show the yield for Pt and T. The yield is plotted against the photon energy in eV. The yield is highest for Pt at low photon energies, and for T at higher photon energies.



toelectric effect is not commonly investigated because it is an extremely difficult process to measure. See AUGER EFFECT PHOTOCONDUCTIVITY PHOTOEMISSION PHOTOVOLTAIC EFFECT see also COMPTON EFFECT [LA]

## Photoemission

Photoemission also called the external photoelectric effect is the ejection of electrons from a solid (or less commonly a liquid) by incident electromagnetic radiation. The visible and ultraviolet regions of the electromagnetic spectrum are most often involved although the infrared and x-ray regions are also of interest. For important practical applications of photoemission see PHOTOTUBE TELEVISION CAMERA TUBE.

The salient experimental features of photoemission are the following: (1) there is no detectable time lag between irradiation of an emitter and the ejection of photoelectrons; (2) at a given frequency the number of photoelectrons ejected per second is proportional to the intensity of the incident radiation; and (3) the photoelectrons have kinetic energies ranging from zero up to a well-defined maximum which is proportional to the frequency of the incident radiation and independent of the intensity.

**Einstein photoelectric law.** The characteristics can not be explained by J. C. Maxwell's theory of electromagnetic waves. In 1905 Albert Einstein made the clarifying assumption that the radiation had characteristics like those of particles when it delivered energy to electrons in the emitter. In Einstein's approach the light beam behaves like a stream of photons each of energy  $h\nu$  where  $h$  is Planck's constant and  $\nu$  is the frequency of the photon (Fig. 1). The energy required to eject an electron from the emitter has a well-defined minimum value called the photoelectric threshold energy. When a photon interacts with an electron the latter absorbs the entire photon energy. See PHOTON.

For  $h\nu$  value below the threshold photoelectrons are not ejected. Even though the electrons absorb photon energy they do not receive enough to surmount the potential barrier at the surface which normally holds the electrons in the solid. (For a discussion of the surface potential barrier see SCHOTTKY EFFECT.) The threshold energy  $\phi$  is associated with a threshold frequency  $\nu_0/h$  and

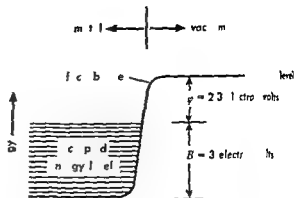


Fig. 2. Energy diagram for electrons in a metal. The photoelectric threshold energy  $\phi = 2.3$  eV is equal to the electron's work function. The band of energy levels occupied by almost free electrons has a width  $B$ .

a threshold wavelength  $ch/\phi$  where  $c$  is the velocity of light. For photon energies above the kinetic energies of photoelectrons range from zero up to a maximum value  $E = h\nu - \phi$ . This is the Einstein photoelectric law and  $E$  is commonly termed the Einstein maximum energy. Careful photoelectric experiments by R. A. Millikan in 1916 fixed  $h$  in Einstein's law with considerable precision and furthered its identification with the constant which M. Planck had used in his theory of black-body radiation.

**Metals.** The Einstein law is based only on the photon hypothesis and on the conservation of energy. It does not take into account momentum, which must also be conserved. The incident photon has a momentum  $h\nu/c$  which is negligible compared to the change in momentum of the electron when it gains the energy  $h\nu$ . Thus it is not possible for a free electron to absorb the entire energy of a photon. In order for this to happen the electron must be bound to another body which takes up the recoil momentum. See COMPTON EFFECT.

Figure 3 shows an energy diagram of the electrons in the metal sodium. There is a potential barrier at the surface which the electron must surmount before they can escape. The most energetic ejected electrons must acquire 2.3 eV of additional energy from photons in order to do this. This 2.3 eV is the electron's work function which for a metal is equal to the photoelectric threshold energy. See WORK FUNCTION (ELECTRONIC). Inside the metal the electrons occupy a band of energies about 3 eV wide. The electrons are said to be quasi-free. This means that they behave in many ways like a gas of free noninteracting electrons, nevertheless they move in the periodic potential due to the positive sodium ions and in this sense they are bound. See FREE ELECTRON THEORY OF METALS.

In this situation two types of photoemission are theoretically possible: the surface effect and the volume effect. In the surface effect the recoil momentum is communicated to the crystal because the electron is coupled to the barrier at the surface during photoabsorption. In the volume effect the

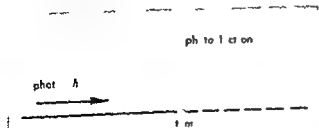


Fig. 1. External photoelectric effect.



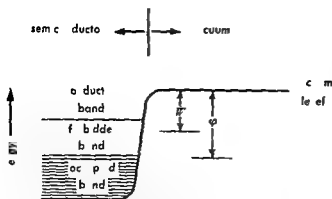


Fig 5 Energy diagram for electrons in a semiconductor. The occupied band is filled with bound electrons that behave differently from those in metals. As a result the electronic work function  $\phi$  is smaller than the photoelectric threshold energy  $\phi_0$ .

the semiconductor rises more steeply as a function of frequency than does the yield from the metal. A related result is shown in Fig 4. On the average the photoelectrons from a semiconductor emerge with lower energies than do the photoelectrons from a metal of the same electronic work function (or even from a metal with the same threshold energy).

A particularly interesting and important kind of photoemitter is typified by cesium antimonide  $\text{Cs}_3\text{Sb}$ . This material is a semiconductor having a forbidden energy band about 1.5 eV wide. The photoelectric threshold energy is only slightly higher than this. Electrons excited from the occupied energy band by incident photons cannot assume energies lying in the forbidden band. They must remain in the conduction band, shown in Fig 5. Thus even the slowest ones must retain energies only slightly less than that required for escape. The probability of photoemission is higher than for metals (or for semiconductors that have threshold energies greater than twice the width of the forbidden energy band).  $\text{Cs}_3\text{Sb}$  is sensitive over much of the visible range and can give very high yields in excess of 0.2 electron per incident photon. It is widely used in practical phototubes. Related compounds can be made with enhanced photoelectric response in the red or ultraviolet regions of the spectrum.

**Alkali halides** Three basically different kinds of photoemission are possible for alkali halides—intrinsic, extrinsic, and exciton-induced photoemission.

**Intrinsic photoemission** This is characteristic of the ideally pure and perfect crystal. It is thus analogous to the emission already described for metals and semiconductors. It appears only for photon energies higher than the intrinsic threshold. For example, potassium iodide (KI) is an alkali halide having this intrinsic threshold in the far ultraviolet near 7 eV. Apparently the width of the forbidden electron energy band in KI is only about 1 eV less than this. For the same reason that was mentioned

for the semiconductor  $\text{Cs}_3\text{Sb}$  the photoelectric yields are high in excess of 0.1 electron per incident photon, as shown by section C of the curve in Fig 6.

**Extrinsic photoemission** A second kind of emission occurs when a KI crystal contains imperfections in the form of negative iodine ion vacancies (lattice sites from which negative iodine ions are missing). These vacancies can be filled by electrons. Color centers, which absorb visible light, are formed (see COLOR CENTERS). They may reach concentrations as high as  $10^{18}$  per  $\text{cm}^3$ . External photoelectrons may be ejected directly from the color centers by photons. It is termed an extrinsic process since the light is absorbed by a crystal defect; it is also called direct ionization. The threshold energy for this process is about 2.5 eV. The yields can reach values of the order of  $10^{-2}$  electron per incident photon, as shown in section A of the curve in Fig 6. The exact value of the yield depends on the concentration of color centers. Most of the incident radiation is lost because it is not intercepted by the centers, which present a limited cross-section to the incident photons.

**Exciton-induced photoemission** When color centers are present, another photoelectric process takes place in two stages. Potassium iodide has a sharp optical absorption band peaking at a photon energy of 5.6 eV. This is the first fundamental or intrinsic optical absorption band. Energy absorbed in this peak does not release free electric charges.

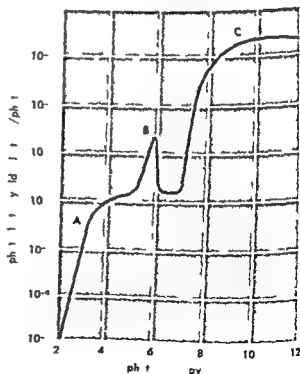


Fig 6 Spectral distribution of photoelectric yield for potassium iodide color centers. Section A of the curve is due to direct ejection of photoelectrons from color centers; the peak B is due to exciton-induced emission; C is due to intrinsic emission.

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ge ally t d d t h n r t h n film mul n and  
m e h b l y h r d d

**Spectral sensitivity** The h r h l i d e e n r  
m l l y e n t o l y to the h r o l e i l e t and  
b l e b t h y a n b m d u e t o l n g r w a  
le gth by d d n t the mul p a l d y  
w ally f t h b y n d m c v n n  
l Th kn w n a e p t l e t z a g f n d  
t b e a b l e e p d t a l e n b y the  
ye mul m u t r e p d t w l e n g t h t o  
h h t h y e t t t a t p p m a t l y  
4000-000 A f m f t t d

A n e t e d e m l o n e k o w n s b l u e n s  
t t b l d r d a y E m l n w h r h a  
b t e a t e d w i t h d y e s t n d t l s n t i t y  
t h g h the g e n e k w n a r i h h m t  
a d f the e n t i t y i e n d e d t h r u g h t h  
d t h a e k w p n c h m t O n o d n r y  
e m l n b l e a p d d l g h t d g n s  
and e d d k O t h o e h m t m l o e p t o  
d b l u a d g l i g h t n d r e d a s d k  
d t h y a e d v e l p r t u e e m  
m l l d d t i l p h i g r p h y and i the  
g p h r t P a h m t e m u l a g r e o n  
a b l g o o d p d u s t n s b l k n d h u f t h  
t n h f o l e d b y e t d p t u l i v  
u f l w i t h n d t l g h t c T h f r  
t h t t f n t b d e s t b n t  
13000 A w h h t h n n l d e g o U l  
t t t t y l m t e d by the t n g p l  
l b p t b v g i t b l w 300 A b t m m  
n s e n t i m u h h t w l t h a e p  
m d n w h h t g l t h a b n e d u d t  
v l w m u n t

**Photographic characteristics** M n y f i b e h  
t s f t e m a t a l p f i f y t h  
d e n f t h t h f t h p h t g p h i c p  
e s t i n t m d t t r y d d  
h i l l f P u o a u r t y A l l t h  
t h m l l t p d t h e p f n o f  
d t h t t f t h d e l p d m e f  
p t m t f d t m a g t h q l t f t h e  
p h t g r p l d p t i t h d f i t t h

a b l i t y t r e f r d e f i n e d t a i l - t h m t m p r i a n t  
f a c t r l e i n g g r a i n n r e l i n g i w r s l a r p  
n e n d a c u t a n c e t r a i n n e t h o l j e t e a p e c t  
o f g a n l a t v m a n f t i t l f a a n n l m g e n e  
o u s g r i y a p p e r a n c e w h i c h m a y b e v i s i b l e i n  
r t l y and t a l w a y v i s i b l e i n d e r m a g n i f i t i n  
H i g h p e e l m i l n a r e g e n e r a l l y g r a n r t i n  
s l o w e m l i o n s t h g r a i n n e s l e n g d p e n l e n t i  
a l a r g e x t e r i m e n t a t u r e o f t h e d e c l y m e n t a n d  
t h e d e t y o f t h e i m g e T h e a t t e m p t i c t a n t h s  
m a d e t i e a p e e d w i t h o u t o b t a i n i n g a c r  
r e p n d n g l y c o a r r g r a i n l n p r i n t t h e g r i s  
n e i s l g l r a t h n e g t i d e n t y r e a e

R e o l i g p o w r f i r p n e a d a u s c d  
p e n d n t h t u l d i t y ( l i g h t c a t t e r n g ) a n d i n t e r  
e t e n r a t i o n o f t h e e m l n R l i n g p o w e r m e a  
a m e a u e o f t h e a l t i t y t o r e c r d f n e d i s l a n d i  
u a l l y e p e d a t h e n m l r f l i e p e r m i l l i  
m e t e r w h i h c a j u t b e e p a r a t e d i a l l y R e l  
i n g p w e t a l u e s n m a l l y r n g e u p t a t t 150  
l n e s / m m b t m a y r a n g f r m l e t h a n 50 t r  
1000 T h e a l d e p e d p n t h a t i f f l e  
e m u l t h e u b j e c t c o t a t t h e d n t y a n d t h e  
d e v e l p e r

S h a r p n e s r e f r t o t h a b l i t y f t h m l n  
t o t h w a h a p l i n e o f d m r e a t n l t e n a e a  
e i n t h a p b u t g a d e d t a n e x t a n d p e d n g  
u p o n t h e d e l p m e t e n d i t n a n d t h e t r i d i t y  
S h a p n s e l t e d t t r t e f l a g e f d e n s  
t y a c r s u c h a b u d a y t h e l y e i e p e r  
w o r k d u t i d e s c r i b e t h i s i n t e r m o f n u m b e r s  
k n o w n a c u t a

**Photographic products** T h o u a n d o f t y p e s a n d  
e o f p l a t f i l m a n d p e r a a a i l l e f o r a  
w i d t y o f a p p l c a t i n A m a t u r p r f e i n l  
m m e r i a l a d n d t l y o d u c t f o r a m s a e  
m a y r a g e f r o m a e x p e d f l t h a  
10 t a b o t 1600 f r m r y f i n e g a n d p t i m m  
h a p s t o f a l y c r g r n w t h e r r e p n d n g  
l o i n d f i n t w a d i n w d e r n g e f c n t a t  
d p e t r a l t t y e s p e c i l l y f o e s c i e n t i f i c  
n d a d u t r i l p h i g r a p h y F i l m o f e x t r e m e l y  
h g h o n t a t a d d n t y r d i g r a p h e p r  
d u t i w k a d u t y a d i t h e p r i n t i g t a d e  
t g h i g h o n t a r i n e d h l l f o r i g a l  
B l u e u l m u l a w d e l y l f r t p y  
n g d m k n d u p l a t e n e g t i M a n y t y p e f  
r y f i l m m a d s o m e c a t d b h t h d e s  
a d f w t h o w t h t n f y i n g c m

A w i d e r n g e o f p h o t o g r a p h p a p e r i s v i a b l e  
i c l u d n t o u s t i t e d n l a g g p a  
p e n a n g o f o t r a t i f p e a l a n a  
t u a d p h o t f i n h g p i n g A n g e o f i m g e  
t a n d t t d p p p p r t i a a l l i A  
a t y o f p p s k g a r n g f p e e d a d n  
t t i a a l b l f t a e r e d i g l l o  
g p h l l g h t r t g e a d d t p s t i e  
p p e e d l o p h o t g r a p h c r p r d u t i f  
d u m e t n d n g n g d a w g P a p e s f r  
d c u m e t p o d c t b y m g t r n f y t m s  
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j p d n g a t y i p l d a n t a t w i t h a r e

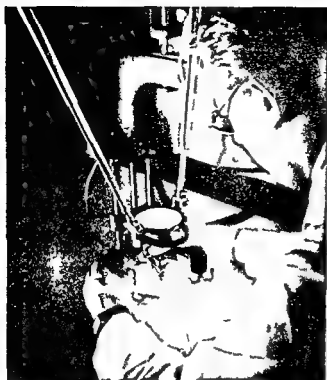


Fig 2 Plotting table (Lo wood K sler a d Bart l H l c)

drawings. Elevations of objects need not be measured where two photographs are taken from known points. Locations are plotted from graphic or analytical solutions of line of sight intersection problems.

Aerial photographs commonly are taken with the camera center vertical. Adjacent photos taken at a prescribed altitude above a reference plane are overlapped. The two images of the same terrain then can be viewed stereoscopically—that is, one image is seen with one eye and the other image is seen superimposed with the other eye.

Although analytical methods exist for fixing the points measured on a stereoscopic image, direct mechanical solution of the problem is available. In one widely used procedure, glass positions of the two photos are placed in the projectors of a stereoplotting instrument (Fig 1). With the aid of identifiable position and elevation points (from ground surveys), the photos are oriented to the relative positions they had at the instants of exposure. Projections aimed with the aid of pace bars at a plotting table top (white disk, Fig 2) which can be raised or lowered. The image is in precise focus at the center of the disk only when the disk is at the correct focal elevation for a given horizontal position. The center of the disk is indicated by a small spot of light called the floating dot. To trace a contour, the operator sets the elevation on a dial integral with the table. He moves the table laterally until the elevation focus is indicated by the floating dot. Lower the plotting pencil and follow the contour by keeping the image in focus at the floating dot. With special equipment, table movement can be recorded for electronic computer application. [R H DO]

## Photographic materials

The common sensitive material of photography—plates, film, and paper. They consist of a support of glass, plastic, sheet or paper, respectively, coated with an emulsion which in the usual instance is a suspension of silver halide crystal in gelatin and which provides the light sensitive layer in which the picture will be formed.

**Supports.** The glass supports for plates are selected for optical clarity and flatness, and the thickness increases with the size of the plate, ranging usually from about  $\frac{1}{8}$  to  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. Film support for many years mostly of flammable cellulose nitrate sheet is now almost exclusively of the safety variety consisting of a thin flexible transparent optically uniform sheet of low burning material—cellulose acetate and cellulose acetate propionate. When improved dimensional stability is required, film support consists of a variety of polymeric materials such as Vinylite, polystyrene, polycarbonate and polyesters, particularly those related to sulfonates derived from esters of terephthalic acid and ethylene glycol. Plasticizers are added to give flexibility in the case of the cellulose ester supports. Film support usually ranges from 0.0032–0.009 in. in thickness and is made in continuous rolls up to 60 in. wide and usually cut to about 2000 ft. Photographic paper is made from rag stock or mostly from wood pulp specially prepared to be free of chemical impurities and has high wet strength. It is usually coated with a suspension of baryta (barium sulfate) in gelatin to give high reflectance and is calendered if a high gloss is required.

Before the emulsion is coated on the support in the case of plates and film, a subbing or subtratum is applied to ensure good adhesion of the gelatin layer (Fig 1). In general, no sub is used with paper, although it might be needed in special cases, such as in water repellent paper.

**Emulsions.** The emulsion consists basically of a suspension of silver halide crystal in gelatin prepared by adding a solution of silver nitrate to a solution of halide in gelatin. The silver salts used in emulsions are the chlorides, bromides, and iodides. During manufacture, chemicals are added

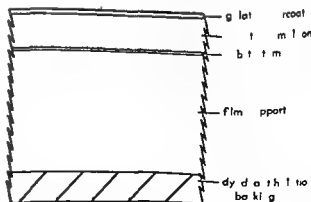


Fig 1 Diagrammatic cross section of film



Fig 1. Slightly magnified photograph of small highly magnified

hide system but usually not at (col) d n) is  
d n ph t me ha cal pr du t n and poly  
n l t t ibum n d the r l l d ha be n  
ued Gl s usually ed a th pp t whe fl t  
n and rig d ty req ed Tr nspa nt film  
upp r s s ly of l l t l l e  
c t e p p io at p l y t e n p l y t r m t e  
l The o emul n co t d d of film nd  
p l t f q t ly e th a d d t ng to  
p ev t b den g f th mag by h l i n (light  
spr d ng) a g l a t t ng t n n t e t u l  
Th s art l e f t th m s) b a n h of ph to  
phy w th m jor b h e d g m f a e d ph t g  
r phy h a s t p h t g phy high speed pho  
t aphy t e c s photography ph d um nt  
p p h o t m ph p h t m e t y n l e part le  
ec d g m e r ph t g r phy t l d g m r o f l m  
ng) d c u e s th t h o y of th ph to g ph  
p o c s l d ng l t n t image f r m a t o n d e l p  
m e t n d f t p e n d t a t t o m t y  
d k o o m q p m t s d i s t n d p j c t i  
p t (enl g ) Fr e d d i n f o r m a t i o n  
A E R I L H O T O G R A P H A S T R O N A U T I C A L H O T O G R A P H Y  
C E R A G E M T O G R A P H Y L A T E V  
S L I D E S L E Y S O P T I C A L M I K R O G R A P H Y M I  
C R O S C O P I C O S C I L L O G R A P H Y T H O D E R A Y  
P H O T O L I T H I C P H O T O G R A M M E T R Y M I D I O C A  
P H Y S I C I E N P H O O R I N Y S H O C K W A E D I S P L A Y  
S P E C T R O G R A P H Y S T R O S C O P I C H O T O C  
P H Y U D E R W I T H P H O T O C H Y

#### BRANCHES OF PHOTOGRAPHY

Th m s b a h e s of ph o t g r p h y m t  
p l t t m m e l e d c t l p s  
t f d t f l n d i m t g p h y (m o t  
p h t g r a p h y)  
A m t u r p h o g p h y s t h b i g g t b n h a d  
n l u d m a k g p l t g p h f p m a n n t e c d  
f m m n t a d f t p u p e s P f s

1. All photography is concerned primarily with  
portraiture for commercial purposes. Commercial  
photography is mainly for advertising and dis-  
tributing educational photographs devoted to teaching and visual education.  
Professional photography is for newspaper and magazine  
illustrations of topical events.

Photography is one of the most important tools  
in scientific and technical fields. It extends the  
range of vision, allowing records to be made of  
things which are invisible because they are associ-  
ated with radiation which the eye is not sensi-  
tive to because they are either too fast or are too small or  
too far away. Photographs are used as simple rec-  
ords which can be studied at leisure and measured  
and filed for reference for accuracy.

Infrared photography Emulsions can be made  
to respond to radiations outside the upper wave length  
limit of about 13000 Å. Using special sensitizing  
dye, photographs can thus be made of subjects as-  
sociated with radiation in the near infrared, such  
as spectra stars, hot objects and subjects which  
show selective absorption effects in the near in-  
frared radiation especially in the near infrared  
from a black body. Infrared photography is ver-  
tically used for high altitudes, slow im-  
posed clarity of detail because the atmosphere  
may effect clarity in the near infrared and al-  
though the contrast of ground objects may be  
higher as a result of the infrared reflectance in  
the near infrared. Gas analysis appears white  
because chlorophyll is transparent to the near in-  
frared. Infrared photography has been used in  
camouflage detection because many green plants  
absorb infrared more strongly than does the foliage.  
They may match visually but have been detected in  
the dark but of temperature at the surface of  
the object. Infrared photography in total darkness  
(the object being illuminated only by infrared) in  
camouflage detection is possible. Infrared  
documentation of the object is a different photograph  
negative which is developed separately with val-  
exposure. Infrared medicine because the ki-  
netic energy may be altered and the body  
and the diagnosis. There are many applica-  
tions in biology, pathology and the logical  
field of clinical diagnosis. S. INFRARED RA-  
DIATION

Ultraviolet photography This is used in the  
photographic spectrography, photomicro-  
graphy, biology, mineralogy, paleontology, and  
medicine. It is used in the development of  
the ultraviolet photography (2) the fluorescence  
method which is the subject of illumination by ul-  
traviolet light. It is used in the mineralogy  
and the reflection of ultraviolet light. The  
violet fluorescence is used in the film and (2) the  
reflected light method which is an alternative  
light source used in the same method with  
a filter which prevents only ultraviolet light

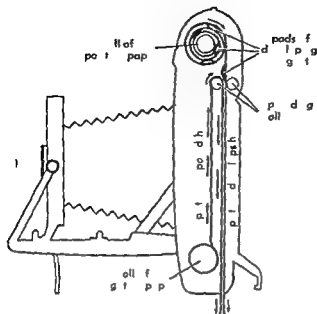


Fig 2 Polaroid Land camera (Polaroid Corporation)

ceiving sheet to which the undeveloped silver halide is transferred by a solvent and is reduced to a positive silver image and (2) the system in which the processed negative is placed in contact with the receiving sheet to which the undeveloped emulsion is physically transferred.

**Polaroid Land camera photography** In this technique the solvent transfer process is used to give direct positive prints in the camera itself. The optical system of the camera (Fig 2) is conventional and exposes a negative material in the back (see CAMERA). This is wound into contact with a separate roll of paper using pressure rollers which burst a pod containing a thickened developer silver halide solvent mixture which is spread as a thin layer between the two sheets. The negative is developed in the exposed sheet and the undeveloped silver halide is dissolved and transferred to the receiving sheet where it is reduced to silver to form a positive image. This process is used for obtaining pictures in a minute. It is popular for amateur photography and has also been adapted for press, commercial, and real estate photography, aerial photography, reproduction of cathode-ray tube images, and for other purposes where rapid production of a picture is desired.

**Storage of materials** Films and papers may be damaged by high temperatures and high relative humidities. Color films are more seriously affected than black and white because the three emulsion layers may be changed to different extents. Protection against high relative humidity is provided by vapor-tight packaging which is kept closed until the film is to be used. However, the package does not provide protection against heat. The lower the temperature the better the film keeps and for storage over several months a maximum of 45–55°F is desirable.

[w c]

**Bibliography** See PHOTOGRAPHY

## Photography

The process of forming visible images directly or indirectly by the action of light or other forms of radiation on sensitive surfaces. In the traditional sense photography utilizes the action of light to bring about changes in silver halides which may be invisible necessitating a developer to reveal the image or which may be a directly visible darkening (print out). Most photography is of the first kind and the function of the developer is to convert the exposed silver halide to silver. The bright parts of the subject give more exposure than the dark parts so that a negative results that is the brighter parts of the subject correspond to the darker parts of the reproduction. A positive in which the relation between light and dark areas corresponds to that of the subject is obtained when a negative is printed onto a sheet of similar material so that the negative tones are reversed. In the reversal process direct production of the positive occurs if the developed negative silver is removed chemically and the remaining silver halide is then redeposited. Direct positive images can also be obtained directly by using special materials.

The common materials of photography consist of an emulsion of finely dispersed silver halide crystals (chloride, bromide, or iodide depending on the purpose) in gelatin (Fig 1) coated in a thin layer (usually less than  $\frac{1}{1000}$  in.) on glass, flexible transparent film, or paper (see PHOTOGRAPHIC MATERIALS). The most sensitive materials used for negative making consist of silver bromide containing some silver iodide; the slow materials used for prints are usually of silver chloride; materials of intermediate sensitivity are of silver bromide and chloride.

After exposure of the emulsion-coated material in a camera or other exposing device such as a spectrophotograph or recording instrument the sheet is developed, fixed in a solution which dissolves the undeveloped silver halide, washed to remove the soluble salt, and dried. Printing from the negative is done by contact with or optical projection onto an emulsion-coated film or paper and the same sequence of steps is followed as for the negative.

For about 100 years the results of practical photography were almost exclusively in black and white but since the introduction of the Kodachrome process in 1935 a large and increasing percentage of photography has been done in color. In color photography development is basically the same as in black and white photography except that the action is accompanied by formation of product which react to give dyes in addition to the silver which is removed (see PHOTOGRAPHIC COLOR). Other photosensitive systems which are used in photography utilize diazo compounds, sensitive iron salt, photoinitiative polymeric system, bleached color, leachable dyes, photoconductive glass, and electrostatic, electrolytic, and photoconductive effects. Gelatin is the common medium for the silver

g th gh r by r fl c p y g) r in camera  
and m y be negat e r po t In th c s of  
negat e c p e s (f r xample Ph t tat p r i s)  
p t al r = l i u e d the e m r a to g r  
e c t o e n t a t o n In c n t a t p i n t g a l t e r a l l y r e  
e r v e d n e g a t i u a l l y o b t a e d f m w h h  
p t e p n t s m a y b m a d b y p r i n t i n g t h r o u g h  
P t e p i s a r e o b t a e d d r e t l y b y u s i n g s p e  
c i d i e c t p t e p p r I m a g e t r a n s f r p r c  
s a r e s d t g e p t e p t o n r c e n g  
s h e e t b y t r a f e r f o m r e d i x p t e d p a p r s ( u c h  
s b r i f a x, A g l a C o p y a p d G a e t G e a c o p y)  
S y t m o t h t h n l e h i d y s t e m s m a k e o p i s  
b y g t h r m g r a p h y (T h e r m o f a ) n l e c t r o  
t t i c g r a p h y E l e t r o f a x) a n d e l e c t r l y t i c  
p r c e s s e S P H O T O C O P Y I N G P R O C E S S E S

**Photographic photometry** The m e t r i c s y s t e m f r a  
d t o n the a p c t r a l d t r i b u t i o n o f i n t e n s i t y  
a n b m e s r e d b y p h o t o g r a p h y The r i d t  
w h e r t n t y i t o b m a u d s o m p a r e d w i t h  
t h t r m a s t a d a r d u e b y m e a s u r i n g the p h o t o  
g r a p h i c d e s t e p o d e d b y b o t h The m t h o d s  
p a b l i f h g p i o n i f t h c h a t e t i s o f  
p h t g r p h m t r a l a e a c c u a t e l y k n w n a n d  
t h e u l t s e t r p e t e d n t l l y I t s q u a n  
t i t y b l t t m p t o c o m p u t e e s g y f m  
m a u e m e t o f a n g l e d n t y l p r a t i c a l  
e p i m d e t t h u k n w n r a d i a t o n  
a d a d j e n t e r s o f x p r e (e l e c t r a d j a  
c e n t the a m p l a t e o f l m) m a d t o t h  
t a d r d u c the p u e n c h t e p o f the  
r e b n g u t e l y k n w T h d t n t h  
d e l p e d p l a t e f i l m f o r t h t n d r d w h i c h  
m t c h e t h a t f t h a k n o w n a l e c t e d a d t h  
n t t y w h c h g e t s a l s t h t w h c h g r e t h e  
k o w The n d t o t h e f u l f i l l e d a r s t i t  
d h a e b e l e a l y d e f i n d b y L A J n e s

(1937) and G. R. Harris = (1979) See f i n o t o w  
E T R Y

**Nuclear particle recording** C h r e g e d a t o m i c p a r  
t i c l e s g i v e s c r d s o n p h t g r a p h i c e m u l i n s a n d  
t h e m t h o d o f r e o d n g p r o d e s a n i m p o r t a n t a d  
j n t i c h d e t e c t s a s t h e i o i z a t i o n c h a m b e r  
t h e G e r c o u n t e r a d t h e W i l n c l o u d c h a m b e r  
T h e f i r s t s t u d s w r w i t h a p a t e l w h i c h p r o  
d u c e a t r a k o f l i v e r g r a i s i n t h e d e v e l p e d e m u l  
o n P r o t o s w e e l a t e r f o u n d t o p r o d u c e t r a c k s  
w i t h g r a i n s f d f i e r n t s p a c i n g C o m e r a y g i n  
n u c l a d i s i n t e g r a t i o n s n c o l l i s i o n w i t h t h e a t o m s  
i n t h e e m l o n s t a r l k e p a t t e r n s r e u l t i n i n g  
f i t s c k s m a d e b y t h p a r t i c l e s f r o m t h e a t m  
l e T r a c k s o f e l e c t r o n s a n d o t h e r c h a r g e d p a r  
t i c l e s a b e r e r d e d o s p e c i a l t h i c k e m u l i n  
h a v i n g h g h l e r b r m d c o n t e n t a m l l g r a n  
m m m l o g n d a p p r o p r i a t e s p e e d T h g r a i n s  
a e m d e d e c l o p a b l e b y o n i z a t i o n w i t h i n t h e  
c a u s e d b y i m p e t f t h e p a r t i c l e s S e C o s m i c  
R A Y S P A R T I C L E D E T E C T O R

**Microphotography** The p r o c e s s o f m a k i n g p h o  
t o g r a p h s o n a g a i l r e d u c e d s c a l e c a l l d m i c r o  
p h t g r a p h y M i c r o f i l m i n g i s t h e s p e c i a l t e c h n i q u e  
f e c p y n g d o c u m e n t t o r e d u c e d s i z e o n f i l m u u  
l l y 16- a d 3 y m m f i l m b u t 70- a n d 100 m m w i d t h  
i s u e d w e l l i n h e e t f i l m T h e n e g i s e s o r c o n  
t a t p t e f i l m s r p a p e r p r i n t s m a d f o m t h m  
c n b e r e a d i n m f a r g a r e a d e r o r e n l a r g e m e n t  
o t o p a p e r m a y b e u e d t p r i d e c o p i e s S p e c i a l  
m u s t r e m r s a r e u e d p o i d e d w i t h m g a  
z i n e s t o h l d 100 f t r m o e o f f i l m n d m e t i m s  
h a n g a r i a b l e m a g n i f i c a t o n a t m a t i c f o c u s i n g  
n d h g h d i l l e n s e s S o m e c a m e r a e i n t h e  
f r m f d e a k s i n t w h i c h t h e d o c u m e n t s a r e f e d  
r a p i d l y a d p h o t o g r a p h e d n d m e d t h r o g h t h  
m a c h i n e a u t o m a t i c l l y R e d u c t i o m a y r a n g e f o m

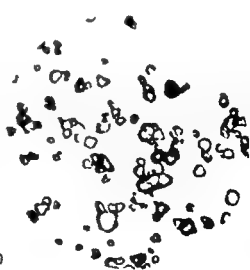


Fig 2 (a) D i p e d f g f p h t g p h  
m l (b) O g l l f i d g f m w h h  
t h f (c) w d l p d b h h g h l y m g f i d



film Ordinary orthochromatic and panchromatic films are used according to the purpose and color photography can be done by the fluorescent light method See **ULTRAVIOLET RADIATION**

**High speed photography** This serves a great variety of purposes in technological studies Modern methods may be grouped as follows

1 **Single exposure photography** The best mechanical shutters will not permit exposures shorter than about  $\frac{1}{4000}$  sec although magnetooptical shutters electrooptical shutters called Kerr cells (see **KERR EFFECT**) and electronic shutters have been used for very short exposures Intense light flashes of very short duration are used in shadow photography and stroboscopic photography In other reflected light methods for single exposures a common source is the gaseous discharge lamp used with a normal camera exposure times as short as  $\frac{1}{40,000}$  sec can be obtained

2 **High speed series photographs** are taken as motion pictures the normal slow motion cameras with intermittent motion giving up to 128 pictures/sec For higher speeds (up to 5000/sec or more) continuous film movement is used with optical compensation for image movement such as a rotating plane parallel glass block or rings of prisms or lenses Photographs made at these high frequencies when projected at normal projection speeds slow down the motion to the extent of the ratio of the taking and the projection speeds

3 **Sequences of short duration photographs** can be made at close intervals using flash bulbs gas discharge lamps and groups of separate cameras operated in succession Many special high speed cameras giving high taking rates have been devised including the Bell Laboratories ribbon frame camera and the F. E. Tuttle grid camera

4 When the subject is self luminous of short duration and moving rapidly such as an explosion a rapid sequence of photographs permits study of its development Methods used include short individual exposures through a rapidly rotating shutter onto a stationary or moving film falling in one plane at right angles to the path of the explosion or wrapped about a rotating drum Rapidly rotating mirrors can be used in a moving film camera to give a series of separate photographs or the film may be held still and a single rotating mirror used Continuous trace photographs on moving film have been used to study the initial stages of explosions High speed single x ray pictures have been taken by discharging a high potential of short duration through the x ray tube

**Stereoscopic photography** This is done to simulate stereo vision (see **STEREOSCOPY**) It presents to the two eyes individually two aspects of the subject made from slightly different viewpoints Relief can be distinguished visually only over moderate distance although the appearance of relief can be introduced in more distant objects by making photographs at greater distance apart Stereoscopic photography can be done by using a single

camera and making two separate photographs one after the other from viewpoints separated by the interocular or other appropriate distance by displacing the lens of a single camera for the two exposures or by rotating the object or the camera so as to give a pair of exposures on one film These methods can be used only with relatively stationary subjects Most stereoscopic photography is done by the simultaneous method in which two photographs are made at the same time using two separate cameras a stereoscopic camera (which is essentially two cameras in one body with matched optical systems and coupled focusing movements) or single cameras using beam splitters to give two photographs side by side on the film

In aerial photography the stereoscopic effect is achieved by making successive overlapping photographs along the line of flight In terrestrial photogrammetry photographs are made from each end of a selected base line and in stereoscopic radiography two x ray photographs are made in rapid succession from separate viewpoints

**Stereoscopic photographs** are viewed in equipment which presents the right eye image to the right eye only and the left eye image to the left eye only This can be done by separate boxes each provided with a lens open type viewers with a pair of shielded lenses sometimes prismatic cabinet viewers with pairs of optics and devices for changing the stereo slides grids or lenticular elements permitting each eye to see only its appropriate field anaglyphs in which two images are printed in ink in complementary colors and viewed through spectacles of similar colors such that each filter extinguishes one image and the vectograph print which consists of a reflecting support on which the stereoscopic pairs are placed one over the other in plastic polarizing layers with the planes of polarization at right angles To view the latter polarizing spectacles are used the eyepieces being arranged so that each eye sees only the appropriate image See **VECTOGRAPH**

**Document copying** Photography is used for reproducing documents of all kinds because (1) errors are not introduced in the copying process (2) it effectively extends the life of perishable records (3) it offers security against loss and disaster by permitting storage of multiple copies and (4) it can provide for retrieving and disseminating the information in them rapidly

Documents are reproduced to essentially the same size as the original by special copying papers and apparatus and reduced to usually on film in reducing cameras (microfilming) Prints from the film usually 16 35 0 and 102 mm are made by contact on silver or diazo sensitized film sometime for in cation in window card or by conventional photographic enlarging or xerography (an electrostatic process) to give reproduction in any scale

Paper copies of documents in scale or at moderate reduction are made by contact printing (print

ing the gh or by reflex copy g) or n am ra  
a d m y be eg t r po ti In the ca e of  
n gat e ope (fo example Photost t p i ts)  
opt c l e r al is ed th c m a to g i e or  
rect re tat l cont ct p i t ng lat r lly re-  
red neg t m u ally hta ed from which  
m ti e pr nts may be m de by pr n t n th ough  
P t e op i are obt a n d d i e tly by using spe-  
al di ct po u p p e s lmag tr sf r p o  
s e s ar d t g i e p n i e p r i t on r ceiving  
beet by t n sfer fr m e s s e p r i t e d p p e r s (su h  
a Ve fa Agla C py ap d Gevaert Ce copy)  
S y tem so the than s i e r h a l d e y tem mak op e s  
by us ng th rm graphy (Th rm fax) r lectro-  
t t (xe graphy El tr fax) a d electroly c  
p e e S = PHOTOCOPYING PROCESSES

**Photographic photometry** The inte s ty of m  
d a i n r the p c t r a l d t r b t o f i t e s ty  
c n be me r d by photography The rad at n  
wh e s t n ty to b mea u d i c m p a e d with  
th t f o m a s t a d r d o u c e by match g i b e p h to-  
graph d t i p o d m d by both Th meth d i  
ap b l f h g h p r i n f the h a c t i t s of  
phot graphy m a t e i s l a e u r a t e ly known and  
the r i t s a i n t e p r e t e d i n t e l l i g e n t l y I t i s q u i t e  
u b l to a t t e m p t t c o m p e t e n t e n g y f o m  
m e u m e t o f a g l d e i t y l p a t i c i n  
g l x p u e m d e t o t h k n w r d i t n  
a d a d j a t e s o f e p o r e ( ) e l y a d j  
c t t h y m e p l a t o r f i l m ) s m d t o t h  
t a d d n o r the ex p o s e i a c h t e p f i t h e  
l i n g a u e t y k w n Th d n t y t h  
d l p e d p l t f i l m t o the t a n d a d w h h  
m a t c h e s t h t o f the k w n y e l e c t d a d t h  
t s ty w h i h g a e s t a ) t h t w h i h g v e the  
u n k o w n The n d i s t b e f u l f i l l e d t i  
a n d h b e n c l e a l v d f i d by L A J a e

(1937) and G H H a r r i s o n (1979) S e l i t o r o v  
E T R Y

**Nuclear particle recording** Charged tomic par-  
t i l s g i v e r e c o r d s n p h t g r a p h i c e m u l i n a n l  
the method of reco ding p o v d e a n i m p r t a n t a d  
j u n c t to s u c h d t e t r s a s t h e i n i z a t i o n c h a m b e r  
the G i g r e c t e r a d the W i l o n c l o u d c h a m b e r  
The first studies w r with  $\alpha$ -particle which pro-  
d u c e t r a c k o f s l e r g r a s n i n the d e l o p e d e m u l  
a i n f i r t n s w e r e l a t e r f o u n d t o p r d u c e t r a c k s  
with grains f d i f f e r e n t s p a c i n g C m c r a y s g i v e  
n u c l e a r d i i n t e g r a t n s o n c l i s o n with the a t o m s  
i n the e m l i n s t a r k e p a t t e r n s r e u l t c o n s i t i n g  
of t r c k s m a d e by the p a r t i c l e f r o m the a t o m i c  
n u c l i T a c k o f l e c t r n a n d t h r c l r g d p a r  
t i c l e s c a n b e r e c o r d o n p e c i a l t h i c k e m u l i o n  
h a i n g f g h s i l e r b r m i d e c o n t e n t s m a l l g r a i n  
m i n i m u m f k a n d a p p r o p r i t e p e e d The g r a i n s  
a e m a d e d e l o p a b l e by i m m u n i z a t i o n s with n t h e m  
a u d e d by i m p a c t o f the p a r t i c l e s S e e C o s m i c  
R A Y S P A R T I C L E D E T E C T O R

**Microphotography** The p r o c e s s o f m a k i n g p h o-  
t o g r a p h s o g r e a t l y r e d u c e d s c a l e i s c a l l e d m i c r o-  
p h o t g r a p h y M i c r o f i l m i n g i s the p e c i a l t e c h n q  
o f o p y n g d u m e n t t o r e d c e d s e z e o n f i l m u s u  
a l l 16- a n d 35-m m f i l m b u t 0- a n d 107 m m w i d t h  
i s u e d a s w e l l a s s h e e t f i l m The n e g a t i v e s o r o n  
t a t p o t e f i l m s o r p r e t p r i n t m a d e f m t h e m  
c a n b e r e d i n e n l r g g r e d e r o r e n l a r g m e n t s  
p r o p e m y b e e d t p r i d e c o p i e S p e c i a l  
m i t u e c a m e r a s r e u e d p r o v i d e d with m a g n e  
z e s t o h o l d 100 f t o m o r e o f f i l m a n d o m e t i m s  
h a i g a r a b l e m g n i f a t o n u t m a t c f o c u s i n g  
a n d f g h d e f i n i t e n S o m e c a m e r a s a e i n the  
f r m o f d e k a i n t o w h c h the d c u m e t s a r e f e d  
r a p d l y a d p h o t g r p h e d a n d m e d t h r o u g h the  
m a c h i n e a u t o m a t i c a l l y R e d u t i o n s m a y r a n g e f r m



(a)



(b)

Fg 2 (a) D i p d i g n f p h t g p h  
1 (b) O g l i h i d g f m w h h  
h t ( ) w d i p d i h h g h l y m g f d

8 to 40 but in extreme cases by using lenses and films of exceptional definition as in the Mincard system a reduction of 60 times has been used. Special projection equipment made for reading the films may give an enlargement onto a table or a diffusing rear projection screen with provision for rapidly winding the film and framing any desired page.

### THEORY OF THE PHOTOGRAPHIC PROCESS

The normal photographic image consists of a large number of small grains of silver. They are the end product of exposure and development from the original silver halide crystals of the emulsion which range up to a few microns in size (see Fig. 2). The size and distribution of size of the crystals are determined by the way the emulsions are made; the sizes are closely related to the photographic properties. In general the high speed negative type emulsions of moderate contrast have crystals which cover a wide range of sizes whereas the emulsions with low speed and high contrast have crystals which are small and fairly uniform in size.

When an emulsion is exposed to light an invisible change called the latent image is produced. The effect of exposure is made visible by development in a chemical reducing solution which converts to silver the crystals unaffected by the exposure leaving unexposed those not affected. The darkening (density) is determined by the amount of exposure and the extent of development and depends on the number of silver grains developed in a particular area.

With very high exposures density may form directly without development as a result of direct photolysis of the silver halide giving silver. This is known as the print out effect. Its use is confined mostly to making proof prints in portraiture and in certain direct trace recording instruments.

Development of exposed crystals starts at isolated points on the surface. These appear to be associated with points having special sensitivity indicating that the latent image is concentrated at specific points. These so-called sensitivity centers appear to be associated with specks of silver and silver sulfide in the crystal surface.

**Latent image.** The term latent image refers to the change occurring in the individual crystals of photographic emulsions whereby they become developable on exposure to light. Once development has been initiated it continues in an individual grain until effectively all the silver halide is converted to silver.

The concentration speck theory of S. E. Sheppard, A. P. H. Trivelpiece, and R. P. Lohland forms the basis for latent image theory and suggests that the light energy absorbed by the crystal is concentrated in the vicinity of the silver-silver sulfide specks where it liberates silver from the silver halide. Most evidence indicates that the latent image is mostly silver and that the silver speck can initiate development of the crystal when it has

grown to a certain size. The present theory of the mechanism of latent image formation suggests that on exposure the electrical conductivity of silver bromide is increased by electrons becoming available. J. H. Webb suggested that the electron could move freely through the crystal and become trapped at the sensitivity specks. In addition there is conductivity of the silver bromide caused by movement of silver ions. R. W. Gurney and N. F. Mott visualized a combination of the two processes to explain the formation of the latent image as follows:

On exposure the first reaction involves liberation of electrons when energy is absorbed by the crystal. These electrons are able to move freely in the crystal until they impinge on the sensitivity specks where they are trapped and build up a negative charge. This charge attracts the positively charged free silver ions which wander to the specks where they are neutralized by the electrons to give neutral silver atoms as a result of which the specks grow until they are big enough to act as development nuclei. The Gurney-Mott theory is not entirely adequate but together with the concentration speck theory it is the best basis for the explanation of latent image formation at the present time. For additional information on the Gurney-Mott theory see **PHOTOLYSIS (PHOTOCHEMISTRY)**. See also **PHOTOCONDUCTIVITY**.

Latent images are formed not only on surfaces of the crystals but also in their interiors. In the latter case the latent image is presumably associated with localized structural imperfections in the crystals. The internal latent image is frequently formed by very high intensity exposures of short duration.

**Development.** Development is of two kinds, physical and chemical. Both physical and chemical developers contain chemical reducing agents but a physical developer also contains silver compounds in solution (directly added or derived from the silver halide by a solvent in the developer) and works by depositing silver on the latent image. Physical development as such is little used although it often plays some part in chemical development. A chemical developer contains no silver and is basically a source of reducing agents which will distinguish between exposed and unexposed silver halide and convert the exposed halide to silver. Developers in general use are compounded from organic reducing compounds, an alkali to give desired activity, sodium sulfite which acts as a preservative, and potassium bromide or other compounds used as antifogging (fog is the term used to indicate the development of unexposed crystal; it is usually desirable to suppress fog).

Most developers used in normal practice are phenols or amines and a classical rule which still applies although not exclusively states that developers must contain at least two hydroxyl groups or two amino groups or one hydroxyl and one amino group attached ortho or para to each other on a benzene nucleus. Some developing agents do not follow this rule but among the com-

mo develop wh ch do sre hydr qu none mono- methylparamino-phe ol (El n M t l) pyrog hlo (1,2,3-hydr xybenzent) Am d l (2,4-d amin phe nol) a d p-ph nyl n d am ne l 1951 llt d lid pr du ed Ph n d (lph nyl 3-pyrazol don ) wh ch ca epla s a gr at pa t of M tol m m ny m tol hyd oquin n dev l pers Metol and hyd o- qui a e frequently u ed together

Alkalies g n ally u d r dum arb nate sodum hyde de and s dium met li ate (Ko- d lk) Sulfite : de clope act by lowering the t d n y f r x datu n by the Oxidat n prod cts de l pers ha n unde rbal influenc on th ore f el clopment nd m y result in tain M l p g age t nd formulas a e s lected f r u e with p i f mui on a d p rpo es M de n lo phot g aphy eles ma ly n raphenylene- d an ne der ive So c ll d fin gra n de lop- esa m d t edu eth appa ent grainin of negati s Th y ge e ally cont th con ent o al comp nent but e dju ted t low acti ty and o t a s l e t f r a i l i mid O f ne-gr n de lope r b ed n pa aphe n l d m n wh ch r l f s e h l d e t Some develop- r t c mp unded i ha de ng the g l tin wh r dev l pment oc u the unh rde ed a as b ng w hed t t g r l e i m ges for photo- mechan al repr d ct n nd umb b n lor pri t g l n e r i m t r i s uch a the V fax m t m te al the h rden ng d elop ag gent nel ded n the em l i n devel pm nt b g m t t d by applyng a alkali called an ct ator Fr p e c l purpose m ob th n n n of a dev l p ont g fixng ge t ha be n u ed

When a e po ed film is d l p d th m u lly a pe i d du m which m v s ble effect p pe s lte th th d n ty n r a es ap dly t fr t d th m lowly e tu lly r ch g m m m l th m p l t e e the l t b tweek d s ty nd del l pme t tme s

$$D = D(1 - \alpha)$$

m wh h D s th de ty att ned time t D s th m x m m de elop bl de s ty nd k i n t nt alled the el c ty on t nt of dev l pme t After processes Th a l d fixng washn g d vng rdu t a d t n i s t n d t g F x m Alt th m age s de i p d the un ch nged h de t m d u ally m wate l t f d m am n m m th lfat (k own v p e e r l y a hypo nd am m m hypo) Th r m al f n h a ged h l d e s c l l d f i g P t f i g a d l t a d l t p h t t t e n u e d t ut l th l k l c d f v n the dev l pe Alt r s l y d f i g bath n t a n g th lfat lft a d a c t a d m m o ly u e d a d h d e s m y be add d t pr v t soft m f th gelat Th ate f fixng dep ds l g l y n the e t at n o f th f i g a gent nd th t m p r t l t i f s o d m i o l f a t e th rate f f i g m t ap d at 0-40° c n n t t t d t t m p e t n e f 60-75 F

Washing Negati es and pr nt are wa hed in wa ter aft r fix ng to m mo e the oluble l er halide- l l ng agent complexe wh ch might render the photog aphys unstabl on keeping or might cau e m n The rate f remo al of the comp und ly washing is exponenti l and incr e d by rai ng the tempe ature and increa ng th agitation The rate can be ac elerated by c ltral alt l i t n know a hypo clearing aid a thu red c ng the wa h ng time Remaining trace of thio l f a t e m y be r moved by chemical treatment wh ch on erts the thio sulfate t sulfate that does n t affect the m age on storage

D y ng After wash ng the materials mu t be d ed preferably n moving m air In the em of pape r p nts dry m is freq ently d ne on h ated metal drs wh ch may al o g e gl s t the print f they re d ried with th r em l ide w th metal urface

Redu t n and t e n s f i c a t n Redu t n r f r to method f decrea ng the den ty of image ly hem cally d l ng part of the l e r l y u ng o idizers Acco di g to the m p o t i n xidizer may remo e q al am unt s of sil e r from all d n i t e r remo e sil e r i proporti n to the amou t p r e s e n t r e m m o r e s i s f o m the higher d n s e s t i f o m the lower

Inten ification sets t m th d s f r ncrea g the d n ty of an m age u u ally t y dep n t n of sil e r m e c u r y r th r comp und the m p t i n b e n g e l c t e d acc rd ng to the nat re f the inten if a t i n required

To ing Photog aphys re no m lly d m d to b r s nably ne tral in e lo By sp cial treat ment known s t n ng the l can be modified f r m t nce by add tions to the devel p s by il e s l i c t i o n of p e a l d e l o p e by t o i m l t o h i c h c v e r t e s i l e r m a g e n t u c h o m p o u n d s a l e s u l f i d e o r b y p r e p i t a t i g c o l o r e d m e t l l c s a l t s w t h l s m g Dye m a g e a r o b t a i n e d by m e t h o d s f c l o r d e l p m n t

## SENSITOMETRY

St ictly peaki g e n t m e t r y refers to th m a s u m m n t of e n s i t i v i t y f p h t r a p h m t r i l b t m p r a c t t e l d e s a v a r i e t y f o t h e r f a c t wh ch d t e r m e t h p r o p t e s of th f i n l m a g e The m p l e s t m e t h o d of d e t r m i n g e n s i t i v i t y t o g e a g a d e s of x y s u e s a d l e c t t h e p u e q u d t o g v e the l w t s b l e d e n t y M d e n s i t o m t y d p e d o n p l o t t n g c u r v e s h w t g the r e l t o b e t w e e n e x p s e e F n d th d e n t y of the s l e r i m g e m l a t o n m th dev l pment p t r a l q l t y f the l i g h t u c e a d the f t o m s t y d d e f i e d y the l g a t m f t h p a r t y O w l h i n t n d f i e d a s the recipr cal f t h t r s p a r e y T f l i g h t f n t y f i f l l n e g t a n d i t i t y f t n s m i t t d

$$T = 1 / I \quad O = 1 / T = 1 / I \quad D = 1 / I$$

Th elat n hip b t w n d n ty and the l g a thm of exp u e t s h o w n by the H u n t e r

Driffield characteristic curve which has three fairly well defined proportions the greater part of which in most cases approximates the straight line  $B$  to  $C$  in Fig 3 In this region the exposures are directly proportional to the brightness values in the subject In the lower and upper portions of the curve this proportionality does not apply these portions are known respectively as the underexposure region ( $A-B$ ) and the overexposure region ( $C-D$ )

The characteristic curve is used to determine the sensitivity or speed of a material the contrast the exposure latitude and the tone reproduction It is obtained under controlled conditions using a light source of known intensity and spectral characteristics a modulator which gives a series of graded exposures of known values development under precise conditions and an accurate means of measuring the densities

The internationally adopted light source is a tungsten filament electric lamp operated at a color temperature of 2360 K (that is 2360 K is the temperature of a black body whose radiation has the same energy distribution as that from the tungsten surface) combined with a filter to give spectral quality approximating that of mean noon sunlight in Washington D C namely 5400 K (The color temperature of the sun as filtered by the atmosphere when the sun is on the meridian at the latitude of Washington D C is 5400 K see COLOR TEMPERATURE HEAT RADIATION) The light source and exposure modulator are combined in a sensitometer which gives a series of exposures in increasing steps either in a continuous manner Sensitometers are either intensity scale or time scale instruments depending on whether the steps of exposure are made at a constant time and varying intensity or at constant intensity and varying time The exposure may also be intermittent that is a series of short times adding up to the desired total time Continuous exposures are preferred to avoid the intermittency effect (Below certain critical high frequencies the photographic material does not add up separate short exposures arithmetically) The best sensitometers are of the continu-

ous exposure intensity scale variety and the exposure time used should approximate that which would be given the material in practice

Development is carried out in a specified formula or in the developer recommended for use with the material under test for the desired time or series of times at a standard temperature of 68 or 75 F and with agitation which will ensure uniform development and reproducibility

**Densitometers** Photographic density is measured in a densitometer Early densitometers were based on photometer The principle of the inverse-square law was utilized in many instruments (that is the intensity was determined by the distance of the lamp from the photometer head) and in others the intensity was controlled by polarizing devices Usually two beams are taken from a standard light source and brought together in a photometer head one beam passing through the density to be measured and the other through a device for modulating the intensity so that the two fields can be matched Visual instruments are still used but largely as primary reference standards Most densitometers are photoelectric the intensity modulating device usually being a standard density which has been calibrated on another instrument or variable apertures

The simplest photoelectric transmission densitometers are of the deflection type consisting of a light source a barrier layer cell and a microammeter the density being obtained from the relative deflections with and without the sample in place Other photographic densitometers employ the null system in which the current resulting from the transmission of the test sample is balanced by an equivalent current derived from another photocell or from the same cell illuminated by the light beam through a calibrated modulator in alternation with the light beam from the sample The trend in practice is to use another null method in which the modulator is placed in the same beam as the test sample and a controlled dial that the total transmittance of the sample and the modulator is kept constant by balancing against a constant comparison beam Many densitometers are equipped with device for automatically plotting the characteristic curve The densitometry of colored images presents special problems a reference film would be made to the publication of C E K Mee and R M Egan W T Haas Jr and W L Breer listed in the bibliography

When light passes through a negative material particularly transmitted and material altered (if all the transmitted light is used in densitometry the result is called the diffraction density If only the light passing directly through is measured the density is called specular The latter usually is higher and is related to specular density by a ratio which is known as Callier's factor

In color paper print the density is measured by reflection The reflection density is  $D_R = I_g (1/R)$  where  $R$  is the reflectance of light from the paper that is being measured

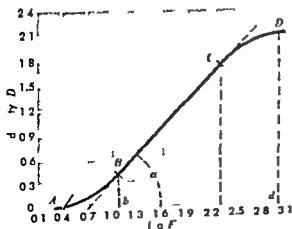


Fig 3 Characteristic curve

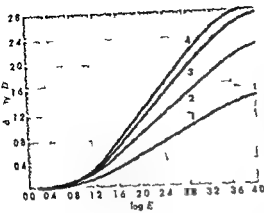


Fig 4 Characteristic curves of different films

If the tangent line of the characteristic curve BC is drawn to meet the exposure axis (all the straight lines on Fig 3 the angle  $\alpha$  is used to pre-

The tangent line of the characteristic curve BC is known as the slope of the curve. The slope of the curve is a measure of the film's sensitivity. The slope of the curve is a measure of the film's sensitivity. The slope of the curve is a measure of the film's sensitivity.

Speed The speed of a material is defined as the rate at which it reacts. The rate of reaction is defined as the rate at which the reaction proceeds. The rate of reaction is defined as the rate at which the reaction proceeds.

The rate of reaction is defined as the rate at which the reaction proceeds. The rate of reaction is defined as the rate at which the reaction proceeds. The rate of reaction is defined as the rate at which the reaction proceeds.

Tone reproduction The effect of the rate of reaction on the tone reproduction is defined as the rate at which the reaction proceeds. The rate of reaction is defined as the rate at which the reaction proceeds.

ences in the plot graph. It has objective and subjective aspects and has been thoroughly worked out.

### PHOTOGRAPHIC APPARATUS

The camera is the basic instrument of photography and is divided into two parts: the camera body and the lens. The camera body is the part that holds the film and the lens. The lens is the part that focuses the light onto the film.

Darkroom equipment The darkroom is a place where the film is developed. It is a dark room where the film is placed in a tank and the developer is added. The film is then washed and fixed. The darkroom is a place where the film is developed.

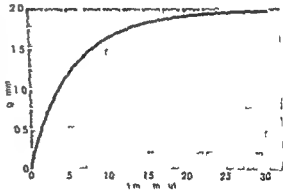


Fig 5 G mm

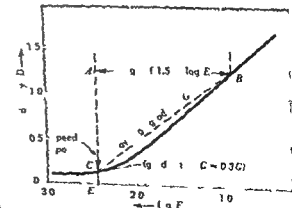


Fig 6 Shows the effect of the rate of reaction on the tone reproduction

tically tanks for roll films which are usually cylindrical and light tight and contain a reel onto which the film is wound in a spiral with spaced convolutions to permit access of the solutions spiral reels onto which film can be wound for processing in a tank or tray flat trays for sheet film plates and paper sheets and occasionally short roll films thermometers for determining temperatures of solutions or mixing valves to give water of desired temperature for controlling solutions in tanks special multiple tank units for color photography tanks trays or special washers for washing negatives and prints dryers ranging from simple clips for hanging negatives in the open air to cabinets having forced warm air special dryers for prints including simple blotting paper sheets and heated flat drum or belt dryers including some which ferrotypes (that is gloss) the prints by drying them in contact with a polished surface clocks and preset timers printers and enlargers print trimmers and for specialized work densitometers printing exposure meters and focusing devices

For professional processing of negatives and printing and processing of prints on a large scale (for example in the photofinishing industry) continuous film and roll paper processing machines and automatic or semiautomatic printers for contact printing or enlarging onto sheets or roll of paper are used Continuous machines are made for processing x-ray negatives in sheet form on a large scale and many continuous processing machines have been designed for special purposes such as aerial photography microfilming scientific recording and motion picture film

**Contact and projection printers** Negatives provide the primary records of photography in the black and white field and to an increasing extent in color and in many cases such as the document reproduction field they may be more useful than the positives In general however positive prints are required and such prints are made from negatives in contact printers and projection printers (or enlargers)

**Contact printers** These are boxes containing lamp a glass top on which a negative is placed over which and in contact with which is put a sheet of printing paper and a lid or platen which is provided with springs air bellows felt spongy material or other means of applying uniform pressure to press the negative and paper into good contact Vacuum or air pressure may also be used to provide contact Contact printers print on single sheets or roll of paper from single negatives or rolls of negative Exposure timers and photoelectric cells for automatically controlling the exposure may be incorporated Positive film transparencies may be printed from negative particularly lantern slides and motion picture film in long roll

Reflex printing is done by contact by exposure through the base side of the photographic paper the sensitive side of which is in contact with the original document In bireflex printing the ex-

posure is also made through the sensitized paper but its base side is in contact with the document the base being translucent In contact printers for thermographic processes the reflex principle is used the source of radiation in the printer being mainly heat

**Projection printers (enlargers)** These are optical projectors consisting of a lamp house and light source a holder for a negative a condenser or diffusing sheet a projection lens designed to give optimum quality at relatively low magnifications means for focusing for the desired magnification sometimes automatically coupled to ensure good focus at all magnifications (autofocus enlarger) a support for the optical components and a board or easel to carry the sensitive paper Timer manually or photocell operated may be incorporated to control exposure time Projection printer may expose individual paper sheets or roll of paper from single negative or rolls of negatives

In some printers (for example Log-Electronic printers) the negative is scanned by a spot of light which at the same time exposes the printing paper the exposure at any point being controlled by the response of a photo cell to the scanning beam

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## Photography color

A large proportion of photography is done in color The camera exposure may result in black and white separation negatives a positive color transparency or a negative color transparency print on film or paper or the white support may be made from the color by a variety of color printing processes See **ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIALS** **PHOTOGRAPHY**





silver halide in the layers and bleaching the silver from all layers leaves a color transparency.

Negative color films (Kodacolor Ektacolor Agfacolor Negative Gevacolor) are obtained from monopacks similar to those described but developed directly in a color developer followed by bleaching the silver the result being a color transparency in complementary colors. In the case of Kodacolor and Ektacolor negative films the couplers used are actually colored red and yellow (apart from the developed color) and the colors are destroyed in proportion to the amount of dye image developed so that the negative dye image is associated with a positive image in red and yellow. This colored mask offsets lack of purity of the negative dyes and gives prints of improved color.

**Color printing processes.** All satisfactory color printing processes on paper or other reflecting support are subtractive. The pictures are formed by combining three positive dye or pigment images in yellow magenta and cyan. Chemical toning dye mordanting pigmented bichromated gelatin or silver halide gelatin and dye bleaching processes have been used commercially. The imbibition process (Kodak Dye Transfer) is used for professional prints: three gelatin relief images (matrices) being made from the separation negatives dyed in their respective color and the dyes transferred in succession by contact to gelatin coated paper.

Most color prints are made by coupler development using the monopack type materials described for films but on paper or white pigmented cellulose acetate support. They may be made by reversal processing to give prints from positive transparencies or by the negative positive process to give prints from color negatives following essentially the techniques used with incorporated coupler films.

**Color motion pictures.** Additive processes have been used for color motion pictures one of which the lenticular process provided the first amateur 16 mm motion pictures.

Practically all color motion pictures are made by the subtractive process although chemical toning and dye toning were used earlier to some extent to give the colored images from color separation negatives. The Technicolor process uses dye imbibition the separation negative being made in a beam splitting camera more modern processes use monopack films giving direct positives which may be printed onto a similar type of film to give duplicate positive or direct positive from which separation negatives are made for printing by dye imbibition or in monochrome negative printed onto color print film all using the incorporated coupler system. See COLOR FILTER COLOR.

[W.C.]

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## Photoluminescence

A luminescence excited in a body by some form of electromagnetic radiation incident on the body. The term photoluminescence is generally limited to cases where the incident radiation is in the ultra violet visible or infrared regions of the electromagnetic spectrum. Luminescence excited by x rays or  $\gamma$  rays are generally characterized by special name. The graph of luminous efficiency per unit energy of the exciting light absorbed versus the frequency of the exciting light is called the excitation spectrum. The excitation spectrum is determined by the absorption spectrum of the luminescent body which it often closely resembles, and by the efficiency with which the absorbed energy is transformed into luminescence.

Photoluminescence may be either a fluorescence or a phosphorescence or both. Energy can be stored in certain phosphors by subjecting them to light or some other exciting agent and can be released by subsequent illumination of the phosphor with light of certain wavelength. This type of photoluminescence is called stimulated photoluminescence. In contrast to normal photoluminescence which is constant in intensity as long as the intensity of the exciting light does not vary, stimulated photoluminescence decreases in intensity as the stored energy is released. See LUMINESCENCE.

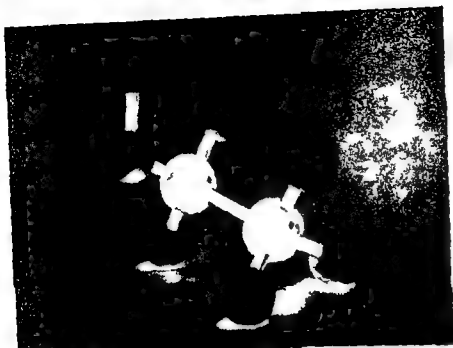
[С.К. Ж.]

## Photolysis (photochemistry)

Chemical decomposition by the action of radiant electromagnetic energy, especially light. Photolysis occurs in certain crystals notably the silver halides when they are exposed to radiation. Here the effect of radiation is to produce a definite chemical change resulting in the separation of photolytic silver. Photolysis of the silver halides is discussed in this article because of the extensive investigation that have been carried out on the material and because of their importance in the photographic process. Actually photolysis occurs in many other materials such as zinc oxide, the metallic azides and to a lesser extent in oxalates, typhnates and fulminate.

A photographic emulsion consists of microcrystalline grains of silver bromide (AgBr) or silver chloride (AgCl) imbedded in gelatin. Upon prolonged exposure to light so-called print-out effect of silver forms within and on the surface of the grain. Silver exposure produces a latent image which can be made visible by the process of development. Experiment has shown that the latent image is probably an elementary form of the print-out silver which results after long exposure.

**Gurney Mott theory.** This theory of the photographic process proposes a two stage mechanism as shown in Fig. 1. In the first stage a light quantum is absorbed at a point within the silver halide grain releasing a mobile electron and a positive hole. The electron migrates to a trapping site (an empty center) within the crystal.

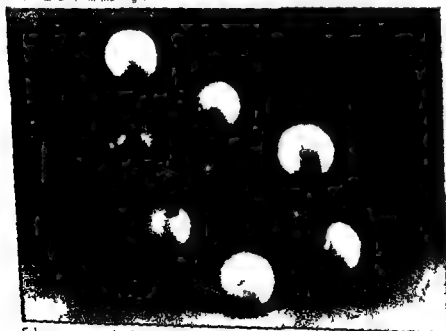


U m a k e d   g o t



P t o f   p n d g n e s t   y g r g i n t g l m

P t m d f m t h e g t



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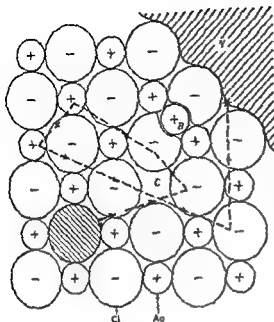


Fig 1 Schematic representation of the Gurney-Mott theory of the photochemical process. The diagram shows a lattice of ions (represented by circles with '+' and '-' signs) and a trapped electron (represented by a shaded circle). The process involves the migration of the trapped electron through the lattice, leading to the formation of a latent image (represented by a shaded circle).

on the surface of the grain. In the second stage the trapped (negatively charged) electron is neutralized by an interstitial (positively charged) silver ion which combines with the electron to form a silver atom. The silver atom at the sensitivity center is capable of trapping a second electron after which the process repeats itself causing the silver speck to grow. It is assumed that the positive hole diffuses to the surface where it recombines with electrons at the surface; they recombine or react with the gelatin.

Criticisms of the Gurney-Mott theory as regards electron-hole recombination with low density of interstitial ions and the role of sensitizers have been given by N. F. Mott and J. W. Mitchell. However, the essential idea of an electronic process linking the initial absorption of light quanta with the formation of the image speck is well founded. Figure 2 shows an electron micrograph of an emulsion grain after exposure to repulsive plates of

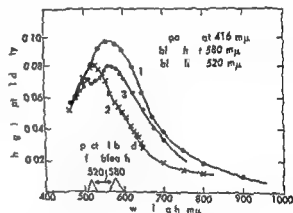


Fig 3 Characteristic spectral sensitivity curves of a photographic emulsion. The curves show the relative sensitivity of the emulsion as a function of wavelength. The peaks are labeled with their corresponding wavelengths: 416 mμ, 580 mμ, and 520 mμ.

light and an electric field. The process involves the migration of the trapped electron through the lattice, leading to the formation of a latent image. The process is highly complicated and involves many factors, including the concentration of interstitial ions, the presence of sensitizers, and the nature of the gelatin.

Large crystals. The photolysis of large crystals of silver halides has been studied by several investigators. The results show that the process is more complex than for small crystals, and involves the migration of ions and the formation of a latent image.



Fig 2 Electron micrograph of a silver grain. The grain is shown after exposure to repulsive plates, which have caused the migration of ions and the formation of a latent image. The scale bar indicates a length of 1 μm.

surface. A pure crystal of AgCl will not darken appreciably upon exposure to light absorbed below the surface. On the other hand crystals which contain small traces of impurity, particularly copper in the monovalent state, darken with high efficiency up to a saturation level which depends upon the amount of impurity present. Figure 3 shows the small amount of absorption for darkening of this type which occurs in the early stages of exposure. Here the extinction of light arises primarily due to absorption. Prolonged exposure, however, produces darkening near the surface which involves considerable light scattering. The centers responsible are similar to the colloidal metal particles formed in alkali halides by coagulation of  $F$  centers during heat treatment. See COLOR CENTERS, PHOTOCHEMISTRY. [FCBR]

**Bibliography** S. Fujisawa (ed.) *Symposium on Photographic Sensitivity* vol. 2, 1958. W. E. Garner (ed.) *Chemistry of the Solid State*, 1955. C. E. K. Mees, *The Theory of the Photographic Process*, 1954. J. W. Mitchell and N. F. Mott, *The nature and formation of the photographic latent image*, *Phil. Mag.* [8] (21) 1149-1170, 1957.

## Photometer

An instrument used in making measurements of light. In general, photometers may be divided into two classifications: (1) laboratory photometers which are usually fixed in position and (2) portable photometers which are commonly used for photometric measurements outside a laboratory. Each of the two classes may be subdivided into visual photometers and photoelectric photometers. These in turn may be grouped according to function, such as photometers to measure luminous intensity, luminous flux, illumination, photometric brightness, light distribution, light reflectance, and transmission, color, spectral distribution, and visibility.

**Visual photometers.** Most visual photometers use a Lummer-Brodhun photometer head or some adaptation of its principles. The Lummer-Brodhun photometer head is an optical device for seeing two sides of a white diffuse screen at the same time. On looking in the eyepiece, the observer sees a circular or oval field composed of a pattern whereby adjacent parts are illuminated by light reflected from the two sides of the screen. Figure 1 illustrates the principle. Light from the two sources  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  to be compared falls on the white diffuse screen with sides  $s_1$  and  $s_2$  and is reflected in part to mirrors  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  and thence to the photometric prisms  $A$  and  $B$ . The central rays pass through the prisms while the outer rays are reflected by the prisms. Concentric fields are thereby formed: an inner field by light from  $I_1$  and an outer field by light from  $I_2$ . The photometer is said to be balanced when both parts of the field are of equal brightness.

A more accurate type of Lummer-Brodhun photometer head is shown in Fig. 2. This differs only in the photometric prisms which are fashioned to

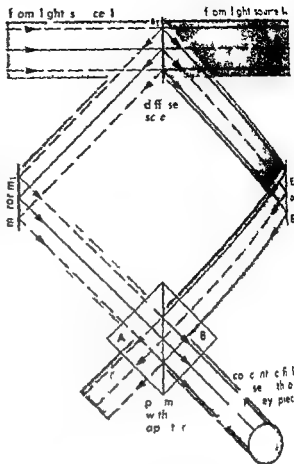


Fig. 1. Diagrammatic sketch of the Lummer-Brodhun type of brightness photometer.

give a photometric field in which  $a$  and  $d$  are illuminated from light  $I_1$  and  $b$  and  $c$  from  $I_2$ . Glass strips  $g_1$  and  $g_2$  are added to absorb the amount of the light illuminating the fields  $b$  and  $c$ . This type of photometer head is balanced when parts  $a$  and  $c$  are equal in brightness (luminance) and when  $b$  and  $d$  are equal in contrast against their respective backgrounds. The Lummer-Brodhun photometer heads are incorporated in laboratory photometers, integrating spheres, distribution photometers, and portable photometers where visual photometry is used.

If there is a difference in color between the two light sources, difficulty is experienced in making a direct comparison as in the Lummer-Brodhun principle and a flicker photometer is often used.

**Flicker photometer.** In this photometer a single field is illuminated alternately by the source to be compared. The position of balance is the point of minimum flicker. The rate of alternation is set fast enough that the color difference merges while the difference in luminance is continuous. Other terms of heterochromatic photometry related to the candle method include open area principle and the use of filter.

**Illuminometer.** An illuminometer is a visual photometer. A typical illuminometer is shown in cross section in Fig. 3. Here the light entering is balanced against the light from the comparison lamp by means of a variable neutral density

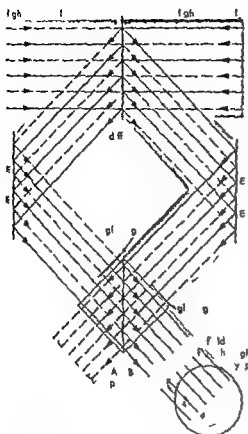


Fig 2 Dq mm kith of the L mm Brodh photometer

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r hed by m ung th c mpari o lamp l ng  
th t b A c ntr l b x upple a e l b t d  
t to th c mp ison l mp d al brated filte  
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**Brightness meter** This nt me t f r me au  
g ph t m tr br ghtnes lum an e may b  
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type (Fig 4) a li-conta ed n tr ment p r  
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e t t p t a d m t amm ter al b t e d t  
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**Photoelectric photometers** Ph t m t e r s a n g  
barr l y r l l a d ph toel c t r i c t b e c l a s s i f i e d  
a s g h t l e t ph o t m t S i c e t h b a  
r l e i l g e t e t h w u c u r n t d n e d  
n b a t t r y f o p e a t t h e y a b e u e d e t h r  
i t h l b o a t r y s p o r t a b l e i n t m e t a s f  
i t h f i l d Th ph t t b e p h t m t n t h  
t h r h d n e b a t t r y o t h e t e r n a l  
p o w p p l y d a u e d m a l y f r l b o r t r y

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a d l u m i n o s i t y c u r v e o f t h e e y e

**Barrier layer cell photometer** This photometer  
is s o p o t a b l e a n d e a y t o u s e t h t i t h s a l m o s t  
m o n o p o l e d f i l d m e a s u r e m e n t s i n c e i t s i n t r o  
d u c t i o n l i s o n l y o f b a r r i e r l a y e r c e l l w h i c h  
g e n e r a t e s a s m a l l e l e c t r i c c u r r e n t (a b o u t 1 o r 2  
m c o a m p e r / f o t c a d l e) w h e n l i g h t o r o t h e r r a  
d i a t e n e g y t h e v i s i b l e r a n g e f a l l o n i t a n d  
a m i c r o a m m e t e r o r g a l v a n o m e t e r t o m e a s u r e t h i s  
c u r r e n t M o d e r n b a r r i e r l a y e r c e l l s g e n e r a l l y u s e  
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t h e o u t p u t o f t h e c e l l i s a p p r o x i m a t e l y l i n e a r l y  
f o r l o w v a l u e s t h e t e r n a l c i r c u i t r e s i s t a n c e T h e  
p h o t o m e t e r s h o u l d b e c o r r e c t e d t o c o r r e s p o n d t o  
L a m b e r t c a n e l w o f i n c i d e n c e (s P H O T O M  
E T R Y)

I n t h i s t y p e f c e l l t h e c u r r e n t r e a c h e s i t s f i n a l  
a l u e a f t e r a s h o r t t i m e d e l a y d u e t o t h e r e s u l t o f  
a n a d a p t i n e f f e c t a n d a l s o i s i n f l u e n c e d b y t e m p e r a t u r e  
B o t h f e c t s w i l l b e m i n i m u m w i t h l o w  
t e m p e r a t u r e F i g u r e 5 i l l u s t r a t e a p o r t a b l e  
t y p e o f b a r r i e r l a y e r c e l l p h o t o m e t e r

B a r r i e r l a y e r c e l l p h t m e t e r s a r e e x t e n s i v e l y  
u s e d a s p h o t o g r a p h i c d e t e c t o r s i n p r o p e r  
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P H O T O G R A P H Y) F r a c h a p p l i c a t i o n t h e i n s t u  
m e n t i s c a l c u l a t e d a s a r a t h e r v a r y c a l e A s a m p l e  
m n a l c o m p u t e s i t s n e e d e d t o p e r m i t c o n  
e r t i n g t h e m e t e r r e d u c i n g n t h p r o p e r d i a  
p h r a g m o p e n i n g a n d e n r e t i m e t o a g i v e n t y p e  
o f f i l m

**Phototub photometer** This photometer has a  
n e e d e d a p h o t o e l e c t r i c t u b e a n a m p l i f i e r t o  
i n c r e a s e i t s s e n s i t i v i t y a g a l v a n o m e t e r o r o t h e r  
a u t o a b l m e t e r b a t t e r i e s a n d a c u t o r r a g e m e n t s  
t o g i v e t h e d e s i r e d a u r e v i n a l i b r a t i o n o n t h e  
d a r k c u r r e n t o r t h e c u r r e n t f l o w i n g w h e n t h e l i g h t  
i s r e t r a c t e d t o a m p t a n t f i c t a n d  
s h o u l d b e u b t a c t e d o e l m n a t d b c i r c u i t r y

**Integrating sphere** A n y o f t h e p h o t o m e t e r s  
m a y b e u s e d w i t h a n i n t e g r a t i n g p h e t o m e t e r  
a u e l u m i n a n c e T h i s i s o r d i n a r i l y m a d e a s a  
u l t r a h i g h p r e s s u r e (F i g 6) a l t h o u g h a n c a b e d  
o t h e r h a p m y t u s e d T h e i n s i d e s u r f a c e  
h a s w h i t e d i f f u s e r f l e c t i n g f i n i s h w h i c h i n t e  
g r a t e s t h e l i g h t T h e l i g h t m e y c m f r m a b a m

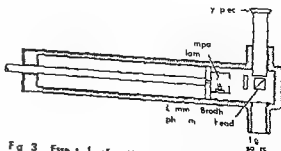


Fig 3 E s s e n t i a l o f M o d e r n

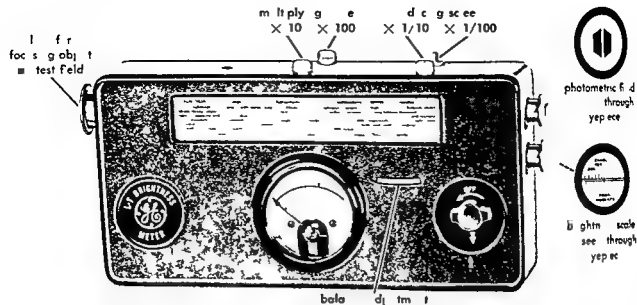


Fig 4 A self-contained visual brightness meter (General Electric Co)

projected into the sphere through an aperture or from a light source in the sphere itself. The integrated light is then measured by a suitable photometer head.

**Reflectometer** This instrument also called a transmittometer combines integrating spheres and barrier layer cells (Fig 7). The reflectances of a surface may be determined by measuring the total light reflected from that surface when a beam of light strikes it in comparison with the reflection from a standard surface. The transmittance can be measured by placing a sample of the material in the opening between the two spheres, one sphere containing the light source and the other the light measuring cells.

**Distribution photometer** The distribution photometer or goniometer measures the luminous in-

tensity at various angles from lamp, luminaire, floodlights and searchlights. The light source can be moved to the desired angle and the light measuring head (either visual or photoelectric) fixed or the light may be fixed and the photometer made movable.

**Spectrophotometer** Measurement of spectral energy from a light source are made by this device. It measures the energy in small wavelength bands by means of a scanning slip and the results are presented as a spectral distribution curve. See SPECTROPHOTOMETRIC ANALYSIS.

**Visibility meters** These operate on the principle of artificially reducing the visibility of objects to three hold values (borderline of seeing and not seeing) and measuring the amount of that reduction to determine the visibility by an appropriate scale.

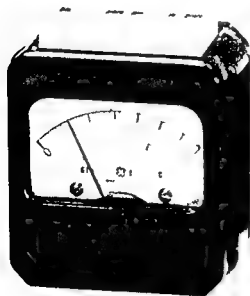


Fig 5 A potentiometer with a barrier layer light meter with a cadmium cell (General Electric Co)

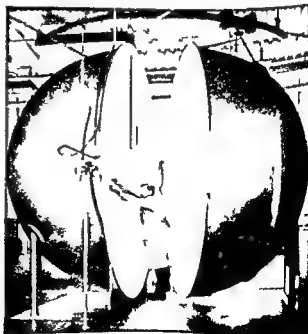


Fig 6 Ultraphotometer for measuring light intensity and efficiency (General Electric Co)

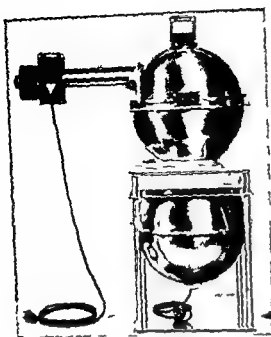


Fig 7 A R t m t o m m t h w g t h  
l i g a l g p h d b r r l y l p h t o m t  
(G I E l e t C )



Fig 8 A L k h-A l b l y m t (G I E  
t C )

# Photometry

The branch of science that deals with the measurement of light. In general the instruments used in the measurements are called photometric. All the apparatus may be used in a standardized manner as for the determination of wavelength.

Photometry is mostly concerned with measurements of luminous intensity (candlepower) luminous flux (such as light output) luminous flux density (illumination) luminance (photometric brightness) light distribution or spectral distribution and the reflection and transmission of light. Photometry may even be extended to include visibility measurement. See ILLUMINANCE LUMINANCE LUMINOUS FLUX LUMINOUS INTENSITY

Since light is defined as a radiant energy that is capable of producing a visual sensation, photometric measurements are made by the human eye. The basic units of measurement are based on the photometric properties of human eyes. The International Commission on Illumination (CIE) has adopted a standard luminosity curve which has been accepted as being that of photopic vision. (See Vision)

**Photometric laws** Many photometric measurements are based upon the inverse square law and Lambert's cosine law. The law states that for a point source the illuminance on a surface varies directly with the luminous intensity of the source and inversely as the square of the distance between the source and the surface with which the illuminance is measured.

$$E = \frac{I}{d^2}$$

In practical photometry where the source is finite, the error is less than 1% if the distance is more than 10 times the maximum dimension of the light source.

**Lambert's cosine law** of incidence. If the luminous flux is not perpendicular to the light rays, the illuminance on the surface is the cosine of the angle between the normal to the surface and the direction of the light rays. The law together with the inverse square law gives

$$F = \frac{I}{d^2} \cos \theta$$

the inverse cosine law for ray flux. **Lambert's law of cosines** on this law is concerned with light sources and states that the luminous intensity in any given direction is proportional to the cosine of the angle between that direction and the normal to the surface.

**Photometric measurements** Photometry may be divided into two general classes: radiometric and photometric. Radiometry is the study of light in terms of its physical properties, while photometry is the study of light in terms of its effect on the human eye.

The Luminous flux is the quantity of light energy that is emitted by a source in all directions. It is measured in lumens. The luminous flux is the product of the luminous intensity and the solid angle subtended by the surface. The luminous flux is the product of the luminous intensity and the solid angle subtended by the surface.

The Candel is the unit of luminous intensity. It is defined as the luminous intensity in a given direction of a source that emits monochromatic radiation of frequency 540 x 10<sup>12</sup> hertz with a radiant intensity of (1/683) watt per steradian.

Modern methods of measurement of luminous intensity are based on the use of standard lamps. These lamps are calibrated against a primary standard lamp. The primary standard lamp is a tungsten filament lamp of known luminous intensity. The luminous intensity of the standard lamp is measured by a photometer. The photometer is a device that measures the luminous intensity of a source by comparing it with the luminous intensity of the standard lamp.



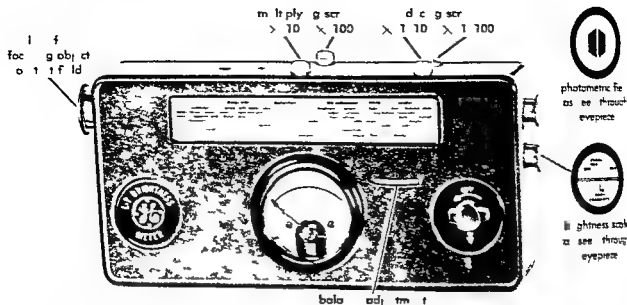


Fig 4 A reflectometer (General Electric Co)

projected into the sphere through an aperture or from a light source in the sphere itself. The integrated light is then measured by a suitable photometer head.

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intensity at various angles from lamps, luminaires, fixtures, and searchlights. The light source can be moved to the desired angle and the light measuring head (either manual or photoelectric) fixed, or the light may be fixed and the photometer moved.

**Spectrophotometer** Measurement of spectral energy from a light source are made by the device. It measures the energy in small wavelength bands by means of a scanning slit and the results are presented as a spectral distribution curve.

**SPECTROPHOTOMETRIC ANALYSIS**  
**Visibility meters.** These operate on the principle of artificially reducing the visibility of objects to threshold values (borderline of seeing and not seeing) and measuring the amount of that reduction to determine the visibility by an appropriate calculation.

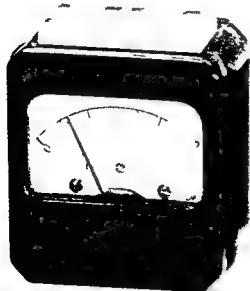


Fig 5 A portable battery light meter with a standard reflector (General Electric Co)

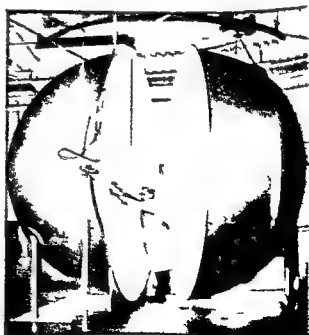


Fig 6 Flashlight photometer for measuring luminous flux and efficiency (General Electric Co)

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The m u em nt of is b lity onn cted w th the phot met y of a light g in t illa n be a e t i em a u of the effe t i e f th lighting V n u types f b lity m te s g e d n g s of r l a t e b lity ba ed n threshold val (b r d t i n e of s e n g a d n t e i n g) Se CANDLE POWER FOOT CANDLE FOOT LAMBERT LA ISFRT LUMEN LUMEN HOUR LUMINOSITY FACTOR LUMI OLS EFFICIENCY LUMI OUS E TRCY LUX PHOT [RCP]

B b l g phy W E Bar ow L ght Ph t m t y a d Ill minating E g i e g 3d d 1951 W B B a t Ill m i n g E g i n e r i g 2d ed 193 Ill m u g E g e r i g Soc i e t y G r l C d t Ph t o m t r y 195 Ill m u n g E n g e n g S c t y I.E.S L ght g H d book 2d d 1952 J W T W lsh Ph t m t r y 2d ed 193

## Photon

An i d b l q n t t y of ele t m g n e e g y J C M well theo y f l e c t o m g t i r a d i t a e f l l y describes t l e n e d f f a t o f t n r f t i n a t i r i a e s a d o t h e r ph o m e n a i t d w i t h e l t m a g e t c w e T r d t b a d u l c h a c t h w e e a d i n o t h e r t n e i t d p l y a s s i s k n t t h o s e o f p t l w h h a r e a l l e d p h o t o s A p h t n s s s o m e t i m e l i e d a q n t u m r i g h t q u a i t m

Ph t s e u f u l f a m p l u n d e s t a d g t h C o m p t o n f i t H r l e c t o m e t c a d t n l l y n t h e f m x y s c i t t e d b y e i c t The x y b e h a e l k e p f t n f n e r g y h (h Planck e n i n t s t h f q u e n c y f t h a d i t a t i d f m o m n t m h / f s t h e e l o c i t y f l i g h t) I n a p h i - e l e c t o n c l l s n m m e t m a d r g y n r i e d j s t a s f p r i c l e s i f l m c h a s s The p h t m l o o s s y n d h f e s m m t m d t h e f r e a l g r w l n g h t f r t h e c o l l o The f t r n g i t h e g d m m t u m t h a t p h t o n

The ph t n a p e c t f r d a t m a l s o c l e a y e r d n t n t h p h n m e n f p l t m f t h m p l e s n g l e c t n b h m t h n i f a d e t p h t n a d a p p r o t d t h m i t t e w i t h a e l s y d f i e d m a x m m g y d s c i b e d b y t h e E i n s t e i n p h t e l t i l w A p h t r e v a w y n g u l a m m e n t u m w h e n t e m i t t e d g n y f r o n c e t r a t n s m n a t o m S C o s t e f f e c t E L E M E N T A R Y P h t o n P h o t o n Q U A N T U M (P H Y S I C S) Q u a n t u m m e n a i c s

## Photoperiodism in plants

A v a r e t y of g r w t h a n d d e l o p m e n t r e p n e s of plants to d a i l y d r t o n of l i g h t a n d d a k n e s A l t h o g h p h o t o p e r i o d i s m o c c u r s i n m a n y s p c i e s f r o m t h e l o w e s t t i e h g h e t i t w a s f i r t o b s e r v e d i a n g p e r m n d t h e t u d y of t h s g o p h a s p r o i d e d m s t of t h e p r e n t k n w l e d g e (s e A n g i o p e r m a e) I n 1920 W W G a n e r a n d H A A i l l d d s o e e d p h t o p e i o d m i n p l n t s T h e y r e p r i e d t h a t p l a t s u h a B l o i y l e a n a n d M a r y l a n d M a m m o t h t o b a c o r e q u i r e s h o r t d a y s a n d l n g n i g h t s f r f l w i n g t h a t o t h e r p l a t n e e d l o n g d a y s n d h r t n g h t w h e r e a s s t i l l o t h p l a t w e r e e e m i n g l y u n i n f l u e n c e d b y d a y l e g t h S u b s e q u e n t l y t h e y f o u n d t h a t f l o w e r i n g w a s n o t t h e o n l y d a y l e n g t h r e g u l a t e d r e s p o n s e of p l a n t f o e x a m p l e s e v e r } p h e n m e n a s u c h a p r o d c t o n f u l b u s t u b e r a n d r u n n e r s c o l o r a t i n of s o m k i n d of f r u i t s a n d l e a s f i m a t i n of b d s a n d t h d e f e l p m e n t f l u d d o r m a c y a r e a l c n t l l d b y d y l e n t h

The p h o m e n o n w a s c a l l e d p h t p i d m b e a i t w a c n e n e d w t h f l e e t of l i g h t o n t h e p l a t s i o n t o t i m e T h e t i m m e a u r e w a s a d a i l y n e b e i g t h e p e r i o d e i t h e r f l i g h t o of d a k n e t a a t o of t h e o n e t o t h t h e r i n g e l a t u d e t h e d i l y p e r o d s of l i g h t a n d d r k r y w t h t h e n a n t p l a n t r e p o n d a c r d i l y T i m i n g of e n a l r e s p n e b y d i r a t n f l i g h t s m h m o r e c o n t a n t f r m v e a r t o y a t h a n t r i n g c n t r l l e d b y t m p r a t r e r a i n f a l l s m e a n d m l y a r i a b l c n d i t i n

**Terminology** C e r t a n t e r m a r e c o m m o n l y u s e d i d c s i g p t o p e r o d i s m f l o w e r i n g p l a n t s S h t a y p l n t T h i k i n d f p l n t f l o w e r s b e e t o n l y w h e n d a i l y l i g h t p e r i o d r e h r t a n d d a r k p e r d s l o g E a m p l e s r e p n s e t a s o v h e a n c o k i b u r a d f i y n t e m u r a

L n g d y p l t T h i k i d of p l n t f l o w e r b e s t n o o l y w h e n d a i l y l i g h t p e r o d a e l a n d d a k p e r d a e t h e r h r t o a b s e n t F m p l e s a r e w h t a b a l e y b e e t a d p o p p y

I n d t m a t e d y n a t p l t T h e f l w r g of t h k i d f p l a n t i d p d e t of d a i l y d u t f l i g h t a d d a k e t E x m p l r e t o m a t o d g d e n b e n

Ph t p d d u t s m n t T h e d y l e n g t h e p o u e t o l i g h t w h c h f o l l o w e d b y t h a p p e a n a n c e of a p e f l w e r b u d (f l o w e n m o d)

C r i t i c a l d y l g t h n g h t l n g t h T h e d a y n g h t l e n g t h w h h d i f f e t a t e b t w e n n d t n d d u c t i p h t o p r o d f o e t h r l o g h r i d a y p l n t s

W h n p h t p e r i o d m w a s f i r s t d i s c o e e d t h e p e c f i c r l e of l i g h t a n d d a k i n t h p r e s s w e e s k w b t i t h a t e b e e n h o w n t h t i m e m r i n g p r o c e s s m d r n g t h d a k p e r i o d s S h r t d a y p l a t a t h u m r e c o r r e c t l y l o n g n g h t p l t d l o g d a y p l n t s h o r t n e h t p l n t B e f l o g u a g h w e r t h t r m h r t d a y a n d l g d y w i l l p h a b i l y b e e t a n e d

cal photometry a photoelectric cell calibrated to respond to the normal human eye makes the measurement (see PHOTOMETER). In either case the photometric measurements are eventually based on the primary standard of luminous intensity which is called the new international candle in the United States and the candela in the rest of the world. See CANDLE.

This primary standard fulfills the requirements of being accurately reproducible with a radiation that follows definite laws as to both the amount of luminous energy emitted and its distribution throughout the visible spectrum. It is not however easy to use so lamps known as secondary standards are carefully calibrated with the primary standard and used in its place. Other lamps called working standards are calibrated with the secondary standard and are used in the laboratories for standards of luminous intensity and luminous flux.

The eye cannot measure the amount of intensity of light with any degree of accuracy because of its power of adaptation. It is a good judge of equality however when adjacent surfaces of much the same color quality are viewed simultaneously. In visual photometry therefore the eye views a photometric field that is made up of two parts each of which is illuminated by one of the light sources to be compared. The photometer is then manipulated so that the two parts are equal in photometric brightness. The photometer is then adjusted to be balanced. Balancing may be accomplished by (1) moving the photometer head in respect to the light sources, (2) moving one light source while holding the other source and the photometer head fixed, (3) introducing a disk of graduated density between one light source and the photometer head or (4) otherwise adjusting the illumination on the two parts of the photometric field in a measurable way so that the photometer is balanced.

An example of the simplest type of photometric procedure is illustrated. A movable photometer head is mounted on rails between a working standard lamp and the test lamp, all three being in one straight line. This is called a photometer bench. The photometer head is moved until the luminances (photometric brightness) of the two sides of the head are the same. The luminance of a surface equals the illumination  $E$  times the reflectance  $\rho$  or from the inverse square law  $I_p/d^2$ . Since the luminance are made equal

$$I_{pT}/d_T^2 = I_{pS}/d_S^2$$

where subscript  $T$  identifies quantities relating to

the test lamp and subscript  $S$  identifies quantities relating to the standard. If the reflectances are equal the luminous intensity  $I_T$  of the test lamp can be determined by

$$I_T = \frac{d_T^2}{d_S^2} I_S$$

Such visual methods are the basis of photometry and were the only ones used formerly both in the laboratory and in the field. The accuracy of visual photometry is limited however because the response of one observer's eye may differ from that of another observer as well as from the theoretical normal eye. The development of physical photometers in the last few years eliminates the error caused by the uncertainty of the human eye. Physical photometers are quicker and easier to use but they require frequent calibration; they vary with time and they require special filters or other means of making their spectral response characteristics correspond to those of the theoretical normal eye of the standard observer. Both types of photometry are still used but the physical photometer (especially using barrier layer cells) is more popular and is used almost exclusively in field measurements of illumination.

**Photometric surveys.** Photometric tests are made of light sources, lighting units (called luminaires), lighting materials and lighting installations. The measurements made of light sources and luminaires are of luminous intensity (directional candlepower, horizontal candlepower, spherical candlepower), luminous flux (output in lumens, efficiency), photometric brightness or luminance (foot lamberts, candles per square inch), light distribution (distribution curves in one plane, isocandle curves) and spectral distribution. The efficiency of a light source is generally expressed in lumens per watt. The efficiency of a luminaire is expressed as the ratio in per cent of the lumens output of a luminaire to lumens output of the light source within the luminaire. A photometric report on a luminaire can include candlepower distribution curves, zonal light flux distribution, total lumen output, efficiency of the luminaire, photometric brightnesses (luminances) at significant angles, coefficients of utilization and other data pertinent to the luminaire. The photometric tests of different types of luminaires (such as indoor lighting equipment, street lighting units and searchlights) require individual photometric techniques, apparatus and methods of showing data but they all follow the same principles.

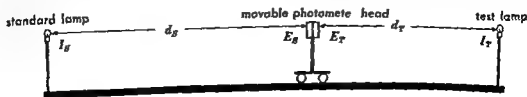


Diagram sketch of a photometer bench

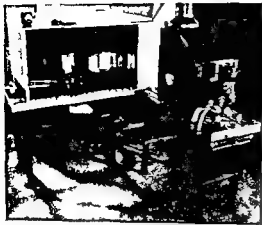


Fig 2 V w f p c t g p h w t h f t m e d t h w p r t f p l i y t m

h w F g l S l r v h c h r l t the n  
g y f e d t l g h t f g n p e t w e  
l g h l l d a t p t m r v T h d t  
f t h r v m f m f l l y p f r m d p h y  
l g l p m t t w h h l g h t f k n w n  
w l g h d e g y p p l d t p l t n t h  
m d d l e f t h l h t t p e t p m t  
f l g e d t t h p h p d p  
f t h p l t s l e n g y l l m t h h  
d s o m t o o l w g t d f f t l t f  
p l a t t h w l g h g t h t a l a b l e  
e s t m t n b e m d e t h m m m g y  
q e d f p t e h g  
l i g h t f f g h p t r i p t v i d d b y  
e l d f n t m e t h d l i m y b h t d b y  
i g h l g h t f m b t h h t w o  
p i m p e c t g y p h ( F i g 2 ) w h i d a t a  
f b t 4 0 f t p d p t m 3  
h g h d b t 6 f t n w d i h f m t h e l t t  
t h e d L e w h l e p l a t g e t h  
d k p r o d t p t b y p l e g t h m a l e  
t h p t r u m t f i d t t n f w h h t h e  
g d w l g h t n g k o w n ( F 3 )  
A t p t m r v m e t m g l t  
t h t u f t h m p d t h a t p t  
l i g h t t h p h t o c h m l t S p e l f f  
t m h t h t f m t p t f t h p  
e t n d t e s t t d f t h p l t p d  
t l l h d l g h t U d d l u m  
t e s t t p t m f t h p m v  
s o l l y m b l e t h b p t p t m f t h  
t p g m t t g f m t b t t h b o  
h e m l s f t l p g m t B t h f f  
t g f t h p t m f t h p h t p r d  
t m l t h d t b l d d  
t h t l t p g m t p h a b l b l H w e  
t g m t e d m p d h g b p t p  
t l e e l m l t t h e p h t p d a t  
p e c t h b e e t t a e d f m p l t p d l l  
p o p l t p h y t g h t h  
t e t p l h h l d n l y b l g  
l g h h l w p t p t m l t h t y p d  
t e d b p h t p o d t p t ( C y a

NOPHYTA) Bl e g e a l h w e r a r e o t  
k o w n t o b e u t t e t p h t p e d n d p h t o  
p e i d l l y t r e l l p l a n t s o t k n w n  
t e n t n p h y c y A m p d f i m i l a r  
n a t u e n t h l a t h e m o t p b b l f o r m o f  
t h p m e t

The e v e r a l c t p t m u r y f l i n g a n d  
h o t d y p l n t r e t a l l y a l i k e T h i s i m i l a r  
i t y i d i c a t e s t h a t t h e p r i m a r y p h o t o r e a c t i o n i t h e  
t w o k d f p l n t t h e s a m e e n t h o u g h t h e  
e f f c t o f d e n t l i t m t m d m e t r i c l l y p  
p t l t e g f t m o f l o n d h t d y p l t  
b e l i d e t t y f t h a c t i o n s p e c t r a w e t b  
l h e d d e t e s t h a t t h e t y p e h l d m d a y  
l g h s p m t e o f i t s o w n f l w e i n g o l d i  
d f l w e r i n g n g f p t f t h e o p p t e  
d y l e n g t h t y p e e e t h g h t h e l t t w a u b j e  
t e d t p h o t p d a t p m t i e f f l w r i n g  
S h e p m e t h w i d e t t y n d t l o f t h e  
f l w p o e n l n a n d h t d a y p l a n t  
t h t i p c t r m x p e m t h w t h t h e  
d e t t y t d t o t h p r e d g l h t r a t i o  
t h a t l a t t h e d t l

**Photoresponses** C o m p r i s n f t n p e c t r a  
l a b l m e t h d o f t a b l h g h t i d t u t y f  
e a t t h t u s d f f e t p l n t p n n  
m p r t t f a t i f t h e a t s p e c t m m a s  
m t T h m t h d i s e d t h w t h t h e  
p l t t n t h t r g l t f l w r i g o f l n n d  
h o r t d a y p l a n t a l r g l a t e a l t h p l t  
p A l t h h t h e l t t e r a e t m m l y  
e g d e d a p h t p d c t h e a r e m t i e d  
b f l y h b e f t h t r b u t n t h a t k o w l  
d g b u t t h m m k t n d e t a d n o o f  
p h t p i d m A m g t h e e p n s a t h e  
g e r m t f l i h t t e d s m f e a t r  
f t h f t n f f r a t s p r p e n a d r  
t t h m t f g o w t h l n t h m d e b y  
t h t r d a f s m k d f p l a t  
T h g m n t f e d h t h m f G a d  
R a p d l i t p m t e d b y l i h t e p e l l y r d  
l i h t T h e t p t m f m m o t o f g r m  
t m l t t h a t i p t f u  
l t f f l w g t h t t h l i g h t r a t a n b e



Fig 3 L f y b p l t f l p l f  
p e c t g p h A l l l p t t m l l f t f  
t h d m p d l f w m d m t b g g  
f p m t

**General description** Information descriptive of photoperiodism is available for a wide range of plants and from it can be gathered certain general facts. For example, critical day lengths vary with species or even varieties, and day lengths favorable to flowering of long and short day plants frequently overlap. Thus a short day cocklebur may flower on photoperiods of 15½ hours or less and long day *Hyoscyamus* on photoperiods of 12 hours or more. Plants also differ markedly in the number of flower-promotive photoperiods they require for induction. For example, cocklebur needs only one such photoperiod under ideal conditions. Biloxi soybean needs two or three, and chrysanthemum requires several.

The leaf blade is the portion of the plant that reacts effectively to photoperiod that promotes flowering. A single leaf exposed to long dark periods may induce flower bud formation on a short day plant even though the rest of the leaves of the plant are on short dark periods. This finding shows that flowering results from the action of a positive flower-inducing stimulus generated in the leaf during long dark periods rather than from the suppression of a stimulus for vegetative development by long dark periods.

Although flowers form at a distance from the leaves, the flowers develop in response to something that happens in the leaf during the dark period. A flower-promoting product generated in the leaf, possibly of hormonal nature, apparently moves to the growing points where it controls differentiation of the flowers (see PLANT GROWTH, PLANT HORMONES). Migration of enough of this product from the leaf to the growing point to effect floral induction in many plants requires that the leaf remain attached to the plant for several hours of the photoperiod following the long dark period. In cocklebur, for example, no flowers form if the exposed leaf is removed at the close of the long dark period, but flowers form abundantly if the leaf is not removed until about 8 hours later.

Darkness must be complete to be effective on photoperiodically responsive plants; a very small amount of light nullifies its action. Illumination greater than 0.02 ft candle of incandescent filament light throughout the dark period inhibits flowering of several kinds of short day plants. The dark period moreover must be continuous; to be effective, an interruption near its middle as brief as 1 minute and with light energy equivalent to less than 50 ft candle minutes of incandescent filament light prevents flowering of plants such as poinsettia and soybean. The brief period of light thus has consequences that continue for several hours.

**Nature of the light reaction** The various responses of plants to day length treatment are descriptive of photoperiodism, but knowledge about them does not immediately lead to an explanation of the processes. Although the biochemical reactions involved in flowering are complex and are almost completely unknown, it is probable that the chains of reactions leading to flowering of a pho-

toperiodically sensitive plant and an indeterminate one are very similar. The chief difference lies in the fact that the course of the reaction, as judged by the flowering response, can be completely diverted in the photoperiodically sensitive plant but not in the indeterminate plant by a light reaction of very low energy.

The nature of this light reaction has been studied in considerable detail and some progress has been made in understanding how it works. The most significant and to the experimenter the most useful information about the reaction is that it is reversible by radiant energy. It goes in one direction if the leaf is irradiated with red light (about 6500 Å) and in the other if the leaf is irradiated with so-called far red or near infrared light (about 7300 Å). If given in the middle of a long night, red light acts to prevent flowering of short day plants, and to promote flowering of long day ones. Far red in each case counteracts the action of red.

**Action spectrum of photoperiodism** The maximum effectiveness of each of these reactions is at the wavelengths mentioned in the preceding section, but other wavelength regions of the spectrum are also active. For example, the relative effectiveness of various wavelengths of light in causing the reaction that has its maximum near 6500 Å is

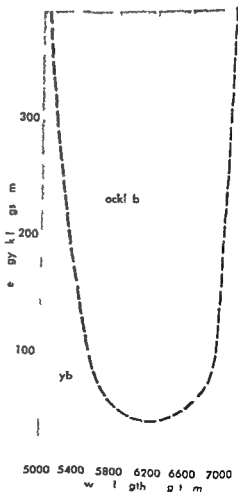


Fig 1. A. I. P. f. m. c. e. h. w. g. e. g. y. r. e. q. ed. fo. h. b. t. o. n. f. f. l. o. w. e. r. g. f. t. w. o. h. r. t. d. y. p. l. t. s. y. b. o. d. c. k. l. b.

hat t p b bly ope tes as an = zyme = other  
e gytra f rri g devic

The p g m t phytoch me was dete ted  
l e t u s e by a p e c i a l s p e c t p h o t o m e t r i c p o  
e d 1959 d w t r a c t e d b u t t y e t p r i  
f i e d n d i d e n t i f i e d b y e l y 1960 F r t h e r s t u d y f  
t h t r c t e d p g m e t m y c l f y t h e n a t u r e o f t h e  
p r i m a r y p h o t o = c i t i o n a d l e d t u d e t a d g  
o f t h e b i o c h e m i n l s t e p s i n o l e d m f l o w e r s g d  
t h e p h t p e r i o d c r e s p o n s e s T h e l a t t e r d o e s n o t  
o l y f l l o w h o w e r I d e t i f i c a t i o n o f h l  
p h y l l t h p h t c t i = p i g m e n t i n p h o t o s y t h e  
f r e a m p l d d n o t m a r k e d l y i m p =  
d t e n d g l p h t s y n t h e s i s T h e c t i o n o f  
p h y t o c h r m e b h a v e r e p t h e s u b j e c t o f p h o  
t p o d m a d e l e d p h o t p o s e s t o s t d e s  
f a t y p e n t p e v s l y p o b l e

M y w r k h e s h o w n e f f e c t s o n f l w e r i n g f  
a s t u d a o t h e r k d s o f m  
p o d s t h t i n f i e c p l a t g r o w t h a d f l o w e r g  
v s y l l e t s k n o w n b o u t t h w a y t h e s u b t c e s  
o p a t t t h e f e c t I n d e e d w h e t h e r t h e  
f e c t s r e s l t f m t h d e t p r i p t o o f t h e e  
b t a m t h f l w e r g l a t g r e a t i o n s o r  
f m t h m e g e r l n f i c e g r w i t h i s o t  
l a r N e v e r t h l e a u s w k e a r e c u r r n t l y  
d g p e r t e x p r i m e t s o l v i g a p p l i c a t o s  
f t h e m a l t e m t e t a n d t h e p h o t n d t s  
d a k p r o d i a u l y t i m e d q u e c e s S u c h e  
r i m e t s w i l l t d t e t h e d e m w h i h  
l h c h e m a l t e m t d t h p h o t e g l t e d r e  
s t u s c r s g t h r o m b n e d e f f e c t n d  
m a y r e l i f t h e r f c t a b u t t h r t h r c t n s  
l d g t o f l o w e r g t h w a y s w h c h t h e r  
u g r w i t h e g u l t i n g s b e t a c e o p e r a t e t h e  
p l a t S P L A N T H O R M O N E S

Applications of photoperiodism Altho gh the  
m e c h m f p h t o p r i d m s f r f r m c o m  
p l i y u d t o d m h p a t a l p p l i c a t i n s  
m d e f t h e d e r p t e k o w l e d g a b o u t t h e p h e  
n o m n P l a n t e t t s w k i g i n p l n t b r e d  
i n g p l n t p t h l g y t h e r f i e l d s s e a t u f i c i a l l y  
o t l e d p h t p r d t r e g l s e t h e t m f  
b l o o m g f t h e p l a t T h k o w l d g e s a l o  
u e d b y g o w s f r i a n c r p p l n t s p a r t u l y  
o r n m n t l e s t o b n g t h e p l n t i t b l o o m  
o t i s o s t t a k e d a t g o f f a r b l e  
m a k e t d t T h e p o d t i o n o f c h r y s t h e m  
m m t h U t e d S t a t e d e p e d l r g e l y o n r t  
f l e o t l o f l i g h t d d r k n e p r c t c t h a t  
p e r m i t t h e p o d t t h o g h o t t h e y s  
t d f d g a f w m t h n t m n ( F i g 4 )  
O t h o r n m n t l w h c h t h s e f c t o l l e d  
d y l g t h p l y p t a l p a r r e s t e r s t b  
r o o t e d b e g a d h d

D t b t f p l t t m d p e d s t  
d b l s t t h p h t p e r o d c r p e s  
T h f k n w l e d g e b o t p h o t o p o d m h  
s e r v e d t l f y r e c o l g a l p b l m T h e  
s e t f b d f r m t i n i n g e t m n y w o o d y  
p l t d e t m d b y t h l g d a y  
l g t h a d s o m p e c c r t h a l y i  
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Fig 4 ( ) P l t f t h m m C h t C l l s  
t p h h g w n r h g h  
t h h r t d y f m d w t ( b ) P l t f t h m  
k d d g g w n d t h m d t  
p t h t h d y l g h t p o d w l g t h d 4 h r s  
b y n f i l i g h t g

bly pl y p t s n e u t h e n e t f d r m a n y i  
o m p l a t s h t n m n y w o o d y p l t s g o w t h  
s t o p a d b d f r m l g b f i r e t h r r i l o f l o w  
s i g h t t e m p e r t t w h h t h e e v n t a r e o m e  
t m e s e r r e o l y t t b u t e d

Sh o t l o g t w h i h i s t p p e d b y s h o r t p h o  
t o p i o d i m n y p n t e m d i n s o m e  
k i n d w h e n t h y a r r t d t l g d a y T h u s  
p l a n t o f C t a l p b g s d e t p p o d c i g n e w  
l e a a s s t h e y a r s h j e t e d t o s h t p h o  
t p i d d f h e l d o s h t d a y s f o r a m o t h  
m r t h y d o n t e m e g r w i t h w h e n e t u r e d  
t l g d a y u l e s t e t e m p e r t u r e s h a r p l y l o w  
e d f a l d y W g l a h b n t h e o t h e  
h n d r e u m e g w i t h m m d t l y w i t h u t a y l o w  
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l o g d a y T h h t o r y f i e t s o g o w t h a p p r  
e n t l y c r t h l e s b e u r e m v l o f t h e  
l f W g l m m e d t e l y f o l l w e d b y s  
s m p t i f b d g r w t h t h g h t p l a n t c o n  
t u n n h o r t p h t p i d T h e w g r w i t h  
h w q k l y t p p e d f t h e h t d a y s a

t e d S P L A N T P H Y S I O L O G Y [ H A B O ]  
B b l g p h y A H l l e d r ( e d ) R d t o  
B l g y o f 3 195 A E M r n e k e t a l V e n l  
s z t u n d P h t p d m A y m p m L t s y a  
A B o l o g a l M i s I I y v l l 1948 I I R u d c k  
( e d ) A p t f S y t h i s d O d G u t h  
1955

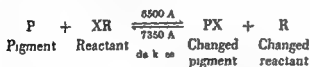
## Photophore gland

A h g h l y m d f i d t g u m n t r y g l n d w h i h  
a e f m n e p t h l l g n t n t t h e d e  
m s I t b e o m u t f f f m t t e f r g n a n d  
d l p m a l m r g n e m p r d f a i n  
a d a l g h t m u g l d b a c k f w h c h p g

assumed to control both. That this is true is shown by the occurrence of reversibility of the germination response at the same wavelength regions that cause reversal of flowering. In Grand Rapids lettuce far red light reinhibits the germination of seeds which are induced to germinate by red light.

A single brief light treatment suffices to induce the germination of lettuce seeds; repeated treatments at daily intervals as practiced in the control of flowering of many plants are not required. For some seeds however light treatments for several hours or repeated daily treatments are required and certain workers have proposed that these seeds exhibit true photoperiodic response. This view is probably correct at least the presence of the reversible photoreaction in them has been demonstrated but complete details of the photoperiodic response in seeds remain to be elucidated.

**The photoreversible reaction.** Knowledge about the reversible photoreaction drawn not only from photoperiodism but also from studies of other phenomena in which the reaction occurs leads to the following general expression:



The pigment form (PX) resulting from the action of red light probably regulates the various biological responses in which this reaction occurs. Evidence for this comes from the germination of seeds that have long been in darkness in the inhibited but dormant condition. A very low energy of red light which would change a small amount of P to PX induces their germination.

Inclusion of XR and R in the reaction is forced by the fact that the relative sensitivity of the system to red and far red radiant energies may be widely different in different species or even in the same species under different experimental conditions. These changes in sensitivity are usually of a reciprocal nature in which an increased sensitivity to red is accompanied by an opposite change in sensitivity to far red. Such variations would result from changes in amount of reactant present. Change in sensitivity of the reaction to red and far red has been examined in most detail in seed germination studies but has been observed to occur also in photoperiodism.

In both seed germination and flowering there is evidence that the active pigment may undergo change of form in darkness. In both instances this change during darkness appears to be from the far red absorbing (PX) to the red absorbing (P) form. In lettuce seeds more than 24 hours appear to be required for effective change whereas in flowering the period seems to be much shorter. Reasons for the differences are possibly connected with differences in the fractional amount of the total pigment in the active form required to regulate the two processes.

**Elongation of internodes of plants.** Another photoreversible phenomenon depends markedly upon the kind of light to which the plants are exposed at the beginning of the daily dark period. Internodes of pinto bean plants that receive far red at this time often elongate to more than three times the length of those that receive red. This reaction, as in seed germination and flowering, is repeatedly reversible with red and far red. The three phenomena are thus controlled by the same photochemical reaction. The response of internodes to red far red irradiation treatments shows that the pigment system is present and functional in the plant immediately after the light is discontinued, a point not readily shown by the photoperiodic reaction in its regulation of flowering.

Most beans are said to be day neutral with respect to flowering. Therefore it is of special significance that the red far red reaction is shown to operate in the bean plant to control response other than flowering. Similar findings have been made with tomato, which also is day neutral in photoperiodic response. The photoreversible red far red reaction has nevertheless been shown to regulate seed germination, internode growth and fruit coloration in tomato. The reaction is thus clearly shown to be present and operative in plants such as bean and tomato, the reason for its failure to regulate flowering in these plants is not yet understood.

The fact that the processes leading to flowering are under control of a reaction that can be started and stopped at will opens the way to studies of the rates of the reactions. Thus one can irradiate short day plants in the middle of dark periods that would otherwise be promotive of flowering and thereby start reactions that lead to its inhibition. The speed with which such reactions proceed is tested by giving far red at various intervals after the red. If given immediately far red almost completely counteracts the inhibitory effect of red but if given 30-60 minutes after red it is ineffective, failing completely to reinduce flowering. This is taken to mean that products of reactions favorable to flowering that accumulated during the first half of the dark period are rather completely destroyed by irradiating the plant with red and leaving it in that condition for approximately 30 minutes.

Information has thus been obtained about the photoreaction of photoperiodism by physiological experiments even though the beginning and end compounds of the reaction are still unknown. The active pigment is not chlorophyll and the concentration of the active pigment is known to be extremely low because it imparts no visible color to certain allopathic plant which nevertheless exhibit photoreversible response and therefore contain the pigment. Therefore the reaction is one in which profound growth effects result from exceedingly small amount of photoreaction. Pigment irradiated by very low light energy. The amount of pigment actively changed by the light is small, the form that regulates growth is exceedingly small, indicating

h t i t p o b b l y o p e r a t e n e g y i a n s f r r i g d v i c e

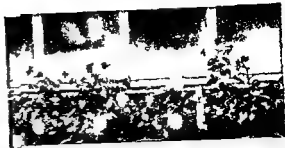
Th t e p g m t, phytochr m w d t e c t e d l e t i s u e b y p i l s p e c t r p h t m t i p r o c e e 1959 a d w t t d b t o t y e t p u r i f i d a d u e u f i e d b y e r l y 1960 F t h t d y f t h e t r a t e d p i g m e t m a y c l f y t h e n t f i t h p r i m a r y p h o t o r a c t i n a n d l e a d t o a n u n d e s t a n d i n g o f t h e b i o h e m a l t p s i o l e d i s f l w r a d t h e p h o t o p e r i o d r s p Th l t t d e c t i l y f l l o w h w e v I d t f i t f c h l o

r p h y l l t h p h o t a c t i p e m t n p h t o y n t h e a s f r m p l d i d n t m k d l y m p r o e d t n d g f p h o t o s y n t h The e t r a t f p h y t o c h m h w e p e s t h e b j t f p h o t p r i o d m d e l a t d p h t e p n t s t d f a t y p e n t p e v u l y p b l e

M y w o k h a h w n e f f e t f l o w e i n g o f a x i n a s i a u n s a d u s o t h k u d f c o m p o d t h t f l c e p l t e g r w t h n d f l w e r i g V e r y l i t t l e k n w n b t h e w y t h e e b s t a p a t i t h e f f t l d e d w t h t h e f f t r l f m t h e d t p r t p t n f i t h e b t c e s t h e f l w e g u l t i g c t I t m t h m r g e l i s e n g w t h s t l e N e v e r t h l e w o k r s e r r e t l y d g p e r t e t o p m t l g p p l t a s f t h e h e m a l t t u n t d t h p h t d u c t e d k p r d o l y t m e d e q u e S h p e r m t w i l l t a t i d e a t t h r d w h c h t h h e m l i r t m n i n d t h p h o r g l t e d e a c t n u n u g t h e c m b d f i s d m y r e v l f u r t h e r f a t b o t e t h e t h e t d g t f l w e g t h e w y n w h h t h e g r w t h r g u l t g b i e s p t i t h n l S e P L A N T H O R M O N E S

A p p l i c a t i o n s o f p h o t o p e r i o d i s m A l t h h t h e r e c h i m o f p h t p e r i o d i s m i f f o m m e t e l y d t o d m h p t c l p p b i c t o a d o f t h e d p t e k w l e d g e b u t t h p h e n o m n P l a t e t i t w r k m p l a t b e d i g p l t p t h l o g y o t h f i l d e r t i f l l y n t r l l e d p h t p e r i o d t g l t t h t u m f l o o m g o f t h p l n t Th k o w l e d g e l e d b y g r w t f r t o p p l a t p a r t i c l y a m t l n s t l i g t h p l a t i o t b l m u t i s s o a t t i k e d t g f f b l e n r k t n d t Th p r d t f c h r y t h e n m i t h e U n e d S t a t e s d p d s l g l y o H h l t r l f l i g h t d d k p t e t h t p r e a t t h e p o d t t h r g h t h y e r i t d f d n g a f e w m n t h t m (F g 4) O t h e r m e t l n w h t h e e o f t o l l e d d y l g t h p l y p r t l p r t t t u b o o o d b e g s d o c h d

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59 4 (1) t e t f t h m m C h t C l l s i p h h g w n t h g h t h h r d y f m d w t (b) P l t f t h m k d d g g w d t h m d t p t h t h d y l g h t p d w l g t h d 4 h b y n f i l i g h t g

b l y p l y p t s a g t h e e t f d m y m m e p l a t s b t m m n y w o d y p l t s g o w t h t p n d b u d f o r m l g b f o r t h l f l o w g h t t e m p e t t o w h i t h t e e t s a s m e s m e e r l y t t b u t d

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B b l g p h y A H l l d e (d) R d t n B l g y 1 3 1955 A E M r k e t l V n l z t n d P h t p e o d s m A y m p m L t y A B l g a l M i s I l y o l 1948 D R d i k (e d ) A p c t f S y t h i s a n d O d n C u t h 1955

### Photophore gland

A h g h l y m o d i f i e d n t g m t y g l d w h c h a e s f r m p h t l l g a t u n i t t h d m I t b c m e s c t f f m u s t f o g n a d d e v e l p t l m n g m p r d f l n d l i g h t m t t g g l d b k f w h c h s a p g



mented reflector of probable dermal cell origin. The luminous bodies occur in deep sea teleosts and elasmobranchs which live in areas of total darkness. See CHROMATOPHORE EPITHELIUM GLAND [OFN]

## Photoreception

The process of absorption of light energy by plants and animals and its utilization for biologically important purposes. In plants photoreception plays an essential role in photosynthesis and an important role in orientation. Photoreception in animals is the initial process in vision. See PHOTOSYNTHESIS TAXIS

The photoreceptors of animals are highly specialized cells which are light sensitive because they contain pigments which are unstable in the presence of light. The light sensitive receptor pigments absorb quanta of radiant energy and subsequently undergo physicochemical changes which are translated into nerve impulses conducted to the central nervous system.

**Morphology of photoreceptors:** While their gross structures differ widely, photoreceptors examined with the high resolution electron microscope appear to have in common a fine structure featuring the presence of membranous organelles with appreciable surface area.

**The vertebrate eye:** The vertebrate eye (Fig 1) can be exemplified by the human eye. The distal segment of the vertebrate retinal rod cell (Fig 1d) consists of a stack of disks enclosed by a membrane. In the rods of the guinea pig, rabbit, and mouse these disks consist of two membranes 30 Å

thick. These enclose a space of about 80 Å, and the disks are spaced 100–200 Å apart. Each distal segment contains many disks; in the frog the estimated number is 1000. The disks in the distal segment are attached to a cilium which runs the length of the segment and connects the distal and proximal segments of the rod cell (Fig 1d). In the core distal segment of the periphery, the disks are composed of a single membrane 140 Å thick. Minor variations in dimensions of the fine structure occur in the different species of vertebrates examined.

**Arthropods:** Photoreceptors of arthropods are superficially quite different from vertebrate eyes, but the fine structure of receptor cells reveals some similarities (Fig 2a,b). Of particular interest are those portions of the retinula cell, the rhabdomeres, which are membranous organelles of appreciable surface area. The rhabdomeres of the *Limulus* eye are composed of interdigitating microvilli from the apposed surfaces of the membrane of the retinula cells in the central region of the ommatidium (Fig 2c,d). Collectively the rhabdomeres constitute the rhabdome in the center of which is the dendrite of the eccentric sensory cell. The rhabdome is situated beneath the crystalline cone directly in the light path. The rhabdomeres of the eyes of spiders and centipedes is similar to that of *Limulus*, with minor variations. In the eye of the fly, the rhabdomeres are located along the central margins of the retinula cells and constitute the rhabdome, which is also centrally located and readily accessible to any light entering the lens. The rhabdomeres consist of stacks of hexagonal tubes, the long axes of which are parallel to a

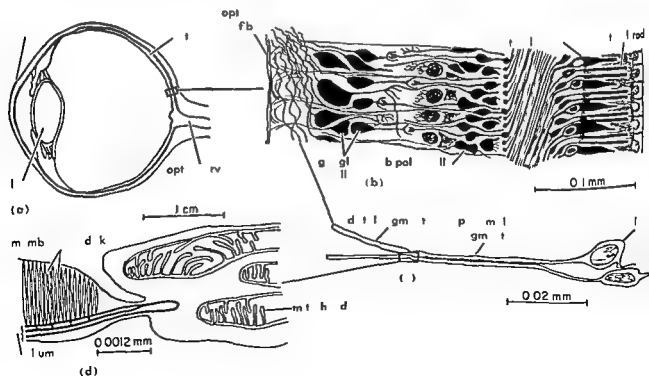


Fig 1 Gross and fine structure of photoreceptors of a typical vertebrate eye. (a) Schematic of the eye. (b) Layers of retina (from S L P Lyak, *The Retina*, Chicago Press 1941). (c) Retinal rod (from S L

Lyak, *The Retina*, Chicago Press 1941). (d) Rod (from F B Roberts, *J Biol Chem* 212(3) 319–329 1956).

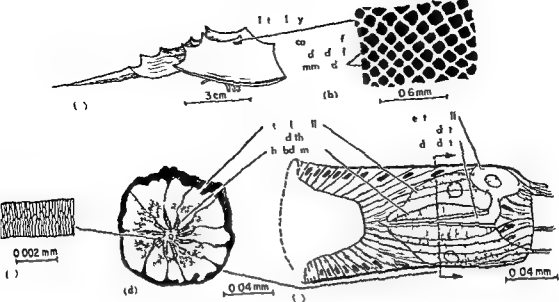


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Chemical behavior of photosensitive pigments  
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mented reflector of probable dermal cell origin. These luminous bodies occur in deep sea teleosts and elasmobranchs which live in areas of total darkness. See CHROMATOPHORE EPITHELIUM GLAND [O E N]

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The photoreceptors of animals are highly specialized cells which are light sensitive because they contain pigments which are unstable in the presence of light. These light sensitive receptor pigments absorb quanta of radiant energy and subsequently undergo physicochemical change which are translated into nerve impulses conducted to the central nervous system.

**Morphology of photoreceptors.** While their gross structures differ widely, photoreceptors examined with the high resolution electron microscope appear to have in common a fine structure featuring the presence of membranous organelles with appreciable surface area.

**The vertebrate eye.** The vertebrate eye (Fig. 1) can be exemplified by the human eye. The distal segment of the vertebrate retinal rod cell (Fig. 1d) consists of a stack of disks enclosed by a membrane. In the rods of the guinea pig, rabbit, and mouse, these disks consist of two membranes 30 Å

thick. These enclose a space of about 80 Å and the disks are spaced 100–200 Å apart. Each distal segment contains many disks; in the frog, the estimated number is 1000. The disks in the distal segment are attached to a cilium which runs the length of the segment and connects the distal and proximal segments of the rod cell (Fig. 1d). In the cone distal segment of the perch, the disks are composed of a single membrane 170 Å thick. Minor variations in dimensions of the fine structure occur in the different species of vertebrates examined.

**Arthropods.** Photoreceptors of arthropods are superficially quite different from vertebrate eyes, but the fine structure of receptor cells reveals some similarities (Fig. 2a,b). Of particular interest are those portions of the retinula cell, the rhabdomeres, which are membranous organelles of appreciable surface area. The rhabdomeres of the *Limulus* eye are composed of interdigitating microvilli from the apposed surfaces of the membrane of the retinula cells in the central region of the ommatidium (Fig. 2c,d). Collectively, the rhabdomeres constitute the rhabdome in the center of which is the dendrite of the eccentric sensory cell. The rhabdome is situated beneath the crystalline cone directly in the light path. The rhabdome of the eyes of spiders and centipedes is similar to that of *Limulus* with minor variation. In the eye of the fly, the rhabdomeres are located along the central margins of the retinula cells and constitute the rhabdome which is also centrally located and readily accessible to any light entering the lens. The rhabdomeres consist of a stack of hexagonal tubes the long axes of which are parallel to a

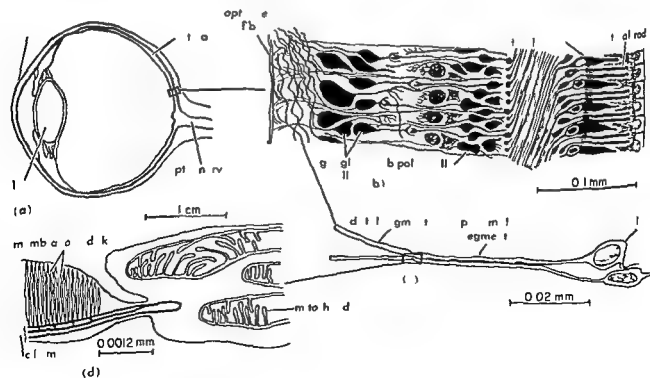


Fig. 1. Gross and fine structure of photoreceptor of a typical vertebrate eye. (a) Section through eye. (b) Layer of retina from *S. L. P. yak*. The Ret. a. U. of Chicago Press 1941. (c) Retinal rod from *S. L. P. yak*. The Ret. a. U. of Chicago Press 1941. (d) Retinal rod from *S. L. P. yak*. The Ret. a. U. of Chicago Press 1941.

*P. yak*, Th. R. I. a. U. of Chicago Press 1941. (d) Rod from *S. L. P. yak*. The Ret. a. U. of Chicago Press 1941. Cytol. 2(3) 319–329 1956.

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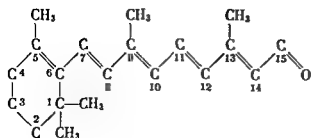
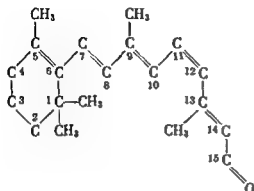
**t e m a u e m e n t s** The method is therefore useful for obtaining spectral sensitivity and dark adaptation in a variety of animal and has often been employed in preference to behavioral techniques. The ERG has also proven useful clinically in the early diagnosis of diseases involving the retina.

Unfortunately however the one restriction as to the source of the ERG has limited its use as a tool in the analysis of primary visual evoked responses. For this purpose the technique of single unit recording employs small electrodes in the method of choice. This method however has not been successfully applied so far to primary sensory cells in the vertebrate retina. A considerable body of information concerning the responses of retinal ganglion cells exists but the ganglion cell is two synaptic steps removed from the primary sensory photoreceptors. Therefore subjects have been primarily directed toward problems of neural organization in the retina rather than toward the problem of photoreception.

In *Ertebrates* In ertebrates photoreceptors especially the compound eye of *E. musus* the horseshoe crab has afforded an opportunity for studying the response of nerve fibers from primary photoreceptors. Experiments of this sort, in which impulsive changes from a single primary nerve fiber are studied in response to various intensities and ratios of flash duration and threshold sensitivity are demonstrated (1) that the frequency of impulsive changes up to the maximum is linearly related to the logarithm of the stimulus intensity (2) that within a certain critical duration is usually somewhere between 0.1 and 1.0 seconds which is the product of sensitivity and duration of constant period of changes of identical frequency (3) that the latency of the impulsive changes decreases as the intensity is increased. Some conclusions have been reached early on in the behavioral studies. In addition the electrophysiological techniques for primary sensory fiber have been used to measure spectral sensitivity and dark adaptation.

The electric response of the illumination in the *Limulus* mandible has also been recorded in single cells using microelectrodes. Extracellular responses recorded in this way fall into two classes: (1) in the majority of cases the response to illumination is sustained depolarization on which small spikes are superimposed; (2) rarely the response is that of a similar depolarization potential which is quickly followed by the depolarization; a light discharge generator potential which rapidly initiates the impulse discharge; the frequency of the impulse discharge is proportional to the amplitude of the generator potential and the frequency of the impulse discharge is proportional to the frequency of the light stimulus.

Light and depolarization It may be alleged that light energy absorbed by photosynthesis is used for the synthesis of ATP and NADPH, which are then used for the synthesis of glucose. This is not the case. The energy of light is used to drive the synthesis of ATP and NADPH, which are then used for the synthesis of glucose. The energy of light is not used for the synthesis of glucose directly.

All *trans* retinene11 *cis* retinene

Structure of two retinene isomers

thus involves (1) the absorption of a quantum of light energy by the molecule (2) the isomerization of the 11 *cis* retinene to all *trans* retinene and (3) the thermal hydrolysis of this incompatible isomer from its site on the protein. The intermediate in this process namely the complex between

opsin and all *trans* retinene before the latter is hydrolyzed away exhibits an absorption spectrum displaced slightly towards shorter wavelengths from that of rhodopsin and has been called metarhodopsin

**Dark adaptation** After exposure to light a recovery of sensitivity by the receptor cell takes place this process is referred to as dark adaptation. It is dependent upon (1) an adequate supply of 11 *cis* retinene and (2) the rate of recombination of opsin with this active retinene. 11-*cis* Retinene apparently is supplied partially by the action of an enzyme retinene isomerase upon the all *trans* retinene released from bleached rhodopsin. In addition an equilibrium exists [catalyzed by alcohol dehydrogenase and diphosphopyridine nucleotide (DPN)] between retinal vitamin A and retinene. Opsin traps the 11 *cis* retinene which is formed to reconstitute the visual pigment.

**Other pigments** In addition to rhodopsin several other visual pigments have been identified in the retinas of vertebrates. Fresh water fishes some amphibians and certain reptiles possess a slightly different form of retinene called retinene<sub>2</sub>. This when combined with rod opsin forms porphyropsin, a visual pigment similar to the rhodopsins but with an absorption maximum at 592 mμ. The protein moiety of visual pigments too can be altered. Cones contain a different opsin in which combines with retinene<sub>1</sub> to form iodopsin. This pigment, which has been isolated from the chicken retina,

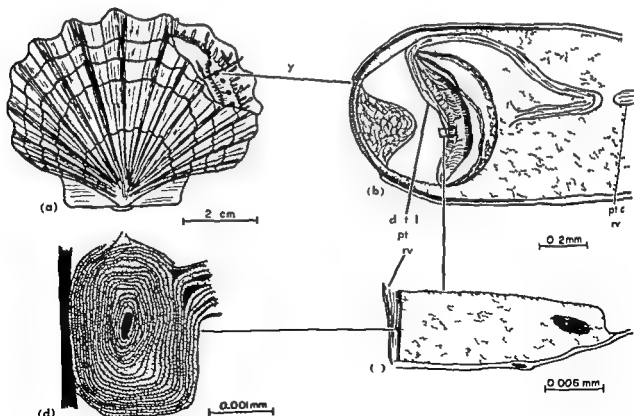


Fig 3 Gross anatomy of the eye of the scallop. (a) Pecten. (b) Longitudinal section through eye (from W J Dakin & J M Cooper, *Proc Roy Soc* 449-112 1910-1911). (c) Detailed view of a single photoreceptor cell (from

W J Dakin & J M Cooper, *Proc Roy Soc* 449-112 1910-1911). (d) Apposition of the outer segments of the photoreceptor cells (from W J Dakin & J M Cooper, *Proc Roy Soc* 449-112 1910-1911).

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sensitive pigment acts to produce a sustained depolarization of sense cells by increasing the permeability of the cell membrane and that this depolarization acts as a generator potential to initiate nerve impulses. The nature of the mechanism by which the absorption of light and the chemical changes which follow it trigger this generator potential is however still a mystery.

[D. K. V. J. W.]

## Photosphere

The photosphere of the Sun (the visible surface of the Sun or other stars) is a gaseous layer a few hundred kilometers thick with an average effective temperature of 5780 K, determined from the total radiation per square centimeter. The temperature is maintained by convection which brings hot material from the opaque solar interior to the surface in the form of rising columns of gas (see STELLAR EVOLUTION). The convection produces a small scale granular texture which is visible through a projection telescope. In areas where strong magnetic fields inhibit the convection the photosphere cools and dark sunspots appear. See SUN.

[J. W. E.]

## Photosynthesis

The term literally means the synthesis of chemical compounds in light. However it is used almost exclusively to designate one particularly important natural process of this type, the manufacture in light of organic compounds (primarily certain carbohydrates) from inorganic materials with simultaneous liberation of oxygen by chlorophyll containing plant cells. This process requires a supply of energy in the form of light, since its products—carbohydrates and oxygen—contain much more chemical energy than its raw materials—water and carbon dioxide. This is clearly shown by the liberation of energy in the reverse process, the combustion of organic material with oxygen (see PLANT RESPIRATION). The light energy taken up by the pigments of the photosynthesizing cells, especially by the green pigment chlorophyll, is partially converted in photosynthesis into stored chemical energy. The two aspects of photosynthesis, the conversion of inorganic into organic matter and the conversion of light energy into chemical energy, make photosynthesis the fundamental process of life on earth. It is the unique source of all organic matter and of all life energy on our planet.

**A multistage process.** From an enormous amount of research by plant physiologists, biochemists, photochemists and physicists it is known that photosynthesis is a complex multistage process. Its two main parts are the primary photochemical process in which light energy taken up by chlorophyll is converted into chemical energy in the form of some not definitely identified energy-rich intermediate products and following this a sequence of enzyme catalyzed dark (not photochemical) reactions by which the intermediates are converted into the final products of carbohydrates and free oxygen.

From a variety of experiments, particularly those on plant fragments which produce oxygen from water in light but do not convert carbon dioxide into carbohydrates, it has been concluded that the first step, the primary photochemical process, is concerned more directly with the oxidation of water (taking hydrogen away from water and leaving the remaining oxygen as a gas) than with the reduction of carbon dioxide (adding the hydrogen taken away from water to carbon dioxide). The hydrogen separated from water in the photochemical process does not appear as free gas ( $H_2$ ) rather it is added to some intermediate acceptor which ultimately transfers it to carbon dioxide by a series of enzymatic reactions. Analogous intermediates must be involved also in the liberation of oxygen from some as yet unknown intermediates of the dehydrogenation of water, since this process also requires enzymes. This leads to the general scheme of photosynthesis shown in Fig. 1. This schematic illustration indicates that the light reaction takes hydrogen away from an intermediate in the conversion of water to oxygen and transfers it to an intermediate in the conversion of carbon dioxide to carbohydrate. The net over all chemical reactions is

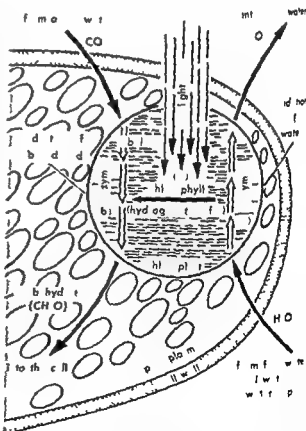
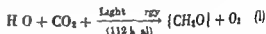


Fig. 1. Schematic illustration of photosynthesis. (a) Chlorophyll-stored hydrogen is oxidized. (b) Enzymatic reaction converts carbon dioxide and light-supplied hydrogen to a carbohydrate ( $CH_2O$ ). (c) Enzymatic reaction converts dehydrogenated water to free oxygen.

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e n 6 b u t n h e s l i s a e l d g e n e r l a c  
c e p t a e b y w o k e s i t h f i e l d T h e n w o f  
d e a b l e i m p t a n c e f t h e i t e r p e t a o f  
t h e m e c h m o f l i g h t a c t i n n p h t y n t h e s  
T h e d e t o f o e m l e c l e o f e a b n d o x d e t o  
t h e r b o h y d m e l e r e q u e t h e t o f f f r  
h y d g a t m



A q a t i m q u i r e m n t i s 8 o m r e w o u l d t h u s  
p r m t t w q u a n t i b e d f t h t a n s f r f  
o h y d g a t m T h p t i l a t e d s o m e w  
t h r o u g h t h e p o c b y J a m F a n c k I f i c o l d  
b e f i w n t h t h e m n m q n t m i e m e n t  
b i t l y b e l 8 u h t h e w o u l d b e  
c m t e n b l

Saturation light and dark reaction If the se  
l p h t y t h e s i p l i t t e d a s a f u s i o n f l i g h t  
i n t n t y a s r e c l s w h h w s h t p r o  
p o r t l i a e t h e g a d l i g h t i r a t i  
(Fg 2) Light at r t n a n b d u s s o s  
On t h l i m i t a t n o f b n d i d e s u p

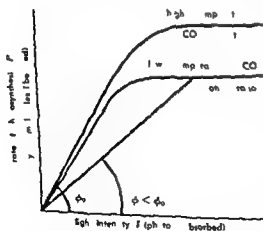


Fig 2 R t o f p h y n t h p i f i o n t t h  
i n t y f i l l m i o c i l b a p t i f p h a  
t o n i h o w g t h p h m f l i g h t s a t t  
T h e s a r a t i o i h i g h w h t m p e t  
C O o n t r a c i h i g h T h t g e s f i t h  
g l o p h t a n o P l i t h q t m y l d t h o r t h  
h i g h e s t v a l u e l i g h t i n s w l i g h t d d e a w h  
l i g h t s a t u r a t i o n s e t s l e

ply f o m t h e o u t s d e F u r t h e r i n c r e a s e f l i g h t i n  
t s t y b e o m e o f n o u e w h e n a l l c r b o n d i o x i d e  
m l e c l e r e a h u n g t h e e l l a r e u e d u p a f a s t a  
t h y a s C a b n d i x l e c n e n t r a t o n a c t i  
t h i s c a s a l i m i t i n g f a c t o r T h e a m e p r i c p l  
a p p l e s t o t h e e f f e c t f n e e a n g c a r b o n d i o x i d e  
c n e n t r a t i o n i n w e a k l i g h t w h e n t h e r e a c t i o n i  
l i g h t l i m t e d

The concept f l m t s f a c t r s w a s i n t r o d u c e d  
i n t o p h o t o s y n t h e s i n 1905 I t i s r e c o g n i d t h a t  
t h i c o n c e p t n r a p e c a l c h a r a c t e r i s t i c o f p h o t  
y n t h e b u t t h a t i t a p p l i s t o a l l c h e m i c l s v  
t e m i n w h i c h o n e o r s e v e r a l r e a c t a n t s m a y b e  
c n t a u l y s u p p l i e d f o m t h e o u t s d e t k e e p t h e  
r t i n g o i n g l i g h t c a n b c o s i d e r d a a r e a c t a n t i p h o t o c h e m i s t r y

W h a t h e a p p l y c d i t i o n s f o c a b o d i d e  
a n d l i g h t s e m t f a b l e t h e r a t e o f p h t o s y n  
t h e s t l l s w s a t u r a t i n m e s p e t o b o t h t e  
r a b l s T h i s i s g e n e r a l l y a t t r i b u t e d t o t h e n e e d  
f o r t h c o m p l e t i o n o f p h o t o y n t h e s f a t l e a t o n e  
(a n d m o r e l k l y s e v e r a l) l i g h t i d e p e n d e n t e n z y  
m a t c e a c t s i n w h i c h c a n f l o w o r p r e c e d e t h e  
p h t o c h m u l t e p A n z y m e c a l y z e d r e a c t n  
h a c e r i m m a m u m r a t e (E/T) d e t e m n e d  
l y t h t o t a l m o u t o f t c a t a l y t ( z y m ) a v a i  
a b l e i t h e c l l E a d t t u r n v e r t m e T t h e  
a g e t m e t h e n z y m e m l e u l e m u t w o k a t a  
g t e m p e r a t u r a o n a m l e c u l f t h r e a c t n  
t t r a t b f e i t s t r a n s f o r m a t i o c o m p l e t e d

$$i_{max} = E/T \quad (3)$$

T h e s e v e l z y m e s i n o l e d i n p h o t o s y n t h e s t h u s  
m p o e c e l g s o n t h e m i n i m u m s p e e d a t w h i c h  
p h t o y n t h e s a s a w h i l a n p r o c e d e r t h e  
m o t f a o b l e a p p l y c o n d i t i o n e a c h z y m e  
f c t i n g a b o t t l e n e c k f l i m t e d c a p a c i t y  
t h e r e a c t o n p t h T h e e n z y m e w h i c h m p e a t h e  
m t e f f e c t e f l w e s t e l g s e e m s t o b e i n o l e d  
a t t e l b e a t o n o f y g e r a t h r t h a n i n t h e r e  
d u t i o n o f c b n d x d e v n c e t h e s a m e a t  
t i n r a t e a s l i e d e a l o n t h e o c l l d H a l l  
r e c t o n a t i n o f p h t y t h e s i n w h i c h  
c l i n d i d e d e s n t t k e p t a t a l l a s w l l b e  
p l n d l a t n i t h a r t c l

Photosynthesis in flashing light In 1932 i t w s  
h w h w h e l i g h t a t n n p h o t o s y n t h e s c n  
b s p i d e f m t h e d a k r e c t i o b y t h u f  
l r i f i t e l i g h t f l a s h e p a r t e d b y i n t e r v a l s o f  
d k e s f a r a b l d r a t a T h e t w o m n c n  
c l d d f o r e P a s h i n g l i g h t e x p r m t s  
a e t h t h e d r k i n t e r v a l b e t w e e n f l a s h e s m u t b e  
l n g t h n 001 e c t o o b t a i n m a x m u m y i e l d o f  
p h t s y n t h f r o m c h f l s h d t a t t h s m a x i  
m u m y l d m m p l a s t a m o n t s t o b u t o n  
m o l u l e f y g e n l b r a t e d n e a h f l a s h f o r 2000  
m o l l o f h l o r p h y l l p r e n t n t h e s l l T h e  
e c n d r e s h e n b i n t e r p r e t e d a s m n g t h t  
t h e e l l e t t e m o l e c l e o f t h e r t l m i t g  
n m e p 2000 c h l o p h y l l m o l e c u l s t h t t h e  
m i n i m u m f l a s h y e l d i s a m a u r f E q (3)  
T h f i t r i t c o l d b e t e g e t e d t o m a n t h a t  
T n E a c (3) i n p a r t



rately by comparing the readings in two manometers containing identical volumes of the same cell suspension but having different gas volumes

Other analytical methods for  $O_2$  or  $CO_2$  such as chemical or electrochemical determination of carbon dioxide, infrared spectroscopy and thermal conductivity measurements in the gas not to mention methods for the determination of the amount of synthesized carbohydrates or of its heat of combustion have not been developed to anything like the precision of the manometric method. Such methods must be used however in experiments under natural conditions particularly in large scale measurements in the field.

One difficulty of precise measurement of photosynthesis is that the reverse process respiration continuously occurs in plant cells. The usual procedure is to determine the rate of respiration by measurements in the dark and add it to the rate of net photosynthesis measured in light. This implies that the rate of respiration is not affected by light. The best support for this assumption comes from A. H. Brown's measurements with the mass spectrometer in which respiration and photosynthesis were made to use oxygen pools of different isotopic composition ( $O_2^{16}$  vs  $O_2^{18}$ ) thus permitting simultaneous determination of the rates of the two processes (see SPECTROSCOPY). Such measurements showed that respiration can be either unaffected or somewhat accelerated in light, the latter particularly in blue green algae and bacteria in which the sites of the two processes are not separated. In higher plants photosynthesis is concentrated in chloroplasts whereas respiration occurs mainly or exclusively in the surrounding cytoplasm (see CYTOPLASM).

Less direct methods occasionally led to conclusions that the rate of respiration is drastically changed in light either decreased or stimulated but the conclusions are much less reliable than those derived from mass spectroscopy.

There is no doubt that respiration is substantially increased after a more or less extended period of photosynthesis when a previously starved cell becomes enriched in photosynthesized sugars which can serve as respiration substrate.

Changes in respiration imply some uncertainty on all measurements of the rate of photosynthesis. This error is less significant when photosynthesis is measured in strong light since under these conditions its net rate may be 10-20 times higher than that of respiration as measured in the dark. The respiration correction becomes much more important when measurements are made in weak light, a type of study important for the determination of the maximum efficiency of photosynthesis. Under these conditions a relatively small change in the rate of respiration during the experiment may introduce a significant error into the calculated rate of photosynthesis. In addition under these conditions chemical interaction between respiration and photosynthesis becomes important; intermediate products of respiration may be utilized for

photosynthesis instead of external carbon dioxide, and vice versa.

**Turnover of photosynthesis on earth.** The total turnover of photosynthesis on earth has been roughly estimated in two ways: by averaging the yields of organic matter per unit area of field, forest, steppe and ocean and by determining the average utilization of incident solar energy by vegetation covered areas. Both procedures lead to numbers of the magnitude of a 100,000,000,000 ( $10^{11}$ ) tons of carbon transferred from the inorganic into the organic state each year. This corresponds to about  $10^{18}$  kilocalories ( $10^{11}$  kcal) of light energy stored annually. The great source of uncertainty in the estimates is the unsatisfactory knowledge of the average production of organic matter in the oceans which has been variously estimated from about the same as to several times greater than that of an equal area of vegetation covered land.

#### UTILIZATION OF LIGHT ENERGY

The average utilization of incident solar energy by plant covered land during the vegetation period is of the order of 1% (see SOLAR ENERGY). This proportion is raised to about 2% if only the visible light absorbed by the plant pigments (that is, only light with wavelengths between 400 and 700 mμ) is taken into account. About 50% of solar energy is in the far red and infrared region and is not absorbed by the photosynthetic pigments.

In the conversion of 1 mole of  $CO_2$  and 1 mole of  $H_2O$  into 1 mole of carbohydrate group ( $CH_2O$ ) and 1 mole of oxygen according to Eq. (1) about 112 kilocalories of heat energy or under natural conditions about 120 kilocalories of potential chemical energy (free energy) are stored. Light absorbed by matter in the form of quanta of energy (photons). A 2% energy conversion yield means that an average of considerably over 100 quanta are absorbed by the pigments under natural conditions to bring about the reduction of one molecule of carbon dioxide. See ABSORPTION (ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION), PHOTON.

**Minimum quantum requirement.** Under natural conditions carbon dioxide supply is not always adequate while light supply may be so abundant for most effective utilization. Furthermore not all plant cells are in the most productive physiological state. By using turbulently flowing suspensions of microscopic unicellular algae in carbon dioxide enriched water an average utilization of up to 7% of absorbed sunlight has been obtained in large-scale experiments. Moreover under still more favorable small scale laboratory conditions (ery weak illumination and very efficient carbon dioxide supply to the algae by strongly stirred carbonate-bicarbonate buffer solution) up to 30% of absorbed light energy could be converted into stored chemical energy corresponding to a quantum requirement of about 8 quanta per molecule of carbon dioxide. This is a very high efficiency not matched by any known photochemical reaction in



precise measurements have put this simple interpretation in doubt. It seems that turnover times of more than one enzymatic reaction influence the observed effects of the length of the dark interval on the yield of photosynthesis per flash.

The use of flashing light with varying flash intensity and flash duration with variable grouping of flash and with varying dark intervals is one of the most important approaches to the understanding of the way in which different factors affect the overall rate of photosynthesis through their effect on different steps in the reaction sequence.

**The Hill reaction.** Various observations suggest that the immediate action of light (the primary photochemical process) in photosynthesis involves the transfer of hydrogen from water (or from a large molecule into which water has been incorporated in a preparatory step) to an acceptor (primary oxidant) X. The latter is not yet a firmly identified molecule. Some believe it to be triphosphopyridine nucleotide usually abbreviated to TPN but it could also be another biological catalyst with a similarly high reduction potential that is a compound which is relatively unstable in the reduced form and thus has a strong tendency to transfer its hydrogen to other molecules.

Carbon dioxide does not enter into this primary photochemical process. It is generally believed that its molecule is first incorporated into a larger organic molecule thus forming a carboxylic acid



where R is an organic radical. This acid then reacts with the light formed reductant (XH) with the help of appropriate biocatalysis (enzyme) but without direct participation of light.

These conclusions are made plausible by consideration of the Hill reaction. This reaction is a process in which illuminated chlorophyll bearing fragment of plant cells produce oxygen from water without concomitant reduction of carbon dioxide but with the reduction of various less stable oxidants such as quinone or ferricvanadate. Since the quantum requirement and other kinetic characteristics of the Hill reaction proved to be similar to those of photosynthesis it can be assumed that in this reaction the primary photochemical apparatus of photosynthesis is preserved more or less intact. In this reaction however the coupling of the primary photochemical process with the enzymatic mechanism which bring about the reduction of carbon dioxide is impaired by the mechanical destruction of the cell.

In 1934 with the use of  $C^{14}$  radioactive tracer it was observed that certain organic compound containing the tracer and having redox level up to that of sugar are formed by illuminating whole or fragmented chloroplasts in the presence of  $C^{14}$  labeled carbon dioxide provided certain auxiliary substance (a organic acid manganese ion vitamin K) are supplied. This suggests that the coupling of the photochemical apparatus with the carbon dioxide reduction enzymatic system

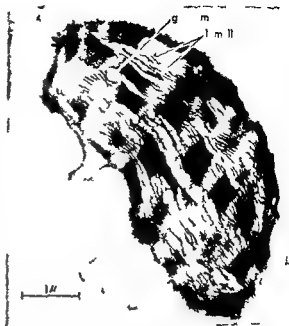


Fig. 3. Electron micrograph of a cross section of chloroplast of car (*Za mays*) fixed with osmium and lead. The micrograph shows lamellae and cylindrical grana formed by the lamellae. Scale bar indicates 1  $\mu$ m.

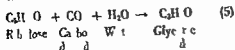
not entirely lost by the mechanical destruction of the cells or at least that this coupling can be partially restored by the addition of the compound

#### PHOTOCHEMICAL APPARATUS

The primary photochemical stage of the photosynthesis process appears to be closely associated with certain structural elements that are found in plant cells. In photosynthesizing bacteria and in the lower truly photosynthetic plant (blue-green algae Cyanophyta) granules called chromatophores occur which are about 50 m $\mu$  in diameter and contain the pigment necessary for photosynthesis. In all other algae as well as all higher plants contain considerably larger pigment bearing multilayered bodies called chloroplasts. In the leaves of the higher land plants the chloroplasts are usually ellipsoidal about 5000 m (0.005 mm) in diameter and 2000-3000 m in thickness. 10-100 of them may be present in an average cell of leaf parenchyma. *S. LEAF (BOTANY)*. In algae the number and shape of chloroplasts are much more varied. For example the much studied green unicellular alga *Chlorella* contain only a few ellipsoidal chloroplasts.

All chloroplasts fixed (oxidized usually) mean (microscopically) and fixed show under electron microscope a layered structure with ternate layer roughly 10 m $\mu$  in thickness. It is generally assumed that the layers differ in proportion of protein and lipid (fatlike) substance in them. The average content of the material in chloroplasts is usually 0% and 30% respectively a range of over 9% protein in the surrounding protoplasm.

1 e 1 l ed is called ab l e, more pre ely a  
ph ph t e d e f i h u g r r bul e d i p h o p h a t e  
Th e i l l n e r t a i t y w h e t h e c a b o x y l a  
t i o n o f t h e m p o u n d i s n o r m a l l y a c c m p a n e d b y  
h y d l y t i g l u g g i g r e t o t w m l c l e s o f  
p h p h g l e c d a s i d e t e d i n t h e f l l o w i n g  
e q u a t i o n



F r m p l e t y t h p h p t r e s d e s a t t e d  
The l i e r n t e t E q (5) i s t h e f i r m t i p o f  
g l e m l e c l i a c d w i t h a x m e m b e r e d  
c a r b o h a n P h p h o g l y c e m d h b e e n f o n d  
b y s o m e w k r s t b t h e m a n C - c o t n n g  
p o d e t a f t e r y l i f (1 l o e c) p h t s y n t h  
f a l g e i n C t a g g e d c r b n t e H o w e v e r n  
t h e s e x p e r i m t l g a w r k l l e d a t t h e e n d f  
e x p o s e r b y d p p n g t h e m i t b l u n g a l h o l d  
t h b e e s u g g e s t e d t h a t m y h a c c u e d  
t h d e c m p o t n f 6 - c b n c i d i t t w o m o l e  
l p h p t g l y c e a d  
I f p h p h o g l y c e a d t h n r m a l i n t e r m e d i  
i n p h t s y n t h e s t h e n t a n b l t p s t u  
t h t t h e e t s t e p f i e r i s f i r m a t o t  
i t t p h p h o g l y c e i d h y d e a s h w n i  
(6)



Gly eri a u d    R e d u t a n t



Gly a l d h y d e    W a t e    O r d d  
r e d e t a n t

t h e q a t n [R H] s t d s o a e d e d m  
d a d y t g u w y w t m s f h y d g e n  
g h d g n c a e r [R] b e h i n d T h  
g r e d t n t m b e s p p l e d b y t h p m r y  
s t o c h m i p

I n r e s p t E q (6) r u n n t h e o p p s t e d  
e t f m p h p h o g l y a l d h y d t p h p h o  
t e d w i t h p h p h p y i d e u l e t i d  
P h r D P h l l e d e n z y m e s l l a r e c  
p r t T h e s l i e e d e d e d a T P h H  
D P h H l i t h b e e s u g g e s t e d t h a t n e f i t h e s e  
i d n l e m i l a o r y m e d a t o b e r e  
n a d t h r i m t e d t n f b o d i x d  
p h t o s t h e s l i t h a b e e p e d t h T P h a n  
e d e d i T P h H b l i m a t d h l p l a t  
t e n t h l l i t u n h w e t h  
t i l l n g p o n f f t h p r t u l a t e d p  
p r t f t h m p o d a p h t s y n t h e s b e  
m d f i s i n t n b e e d e d u d e  
t m d t t

O d f u l t r e s T P h H t a s t r o n g  
z h e d t a t e d p l p h g l y e a d  
t c h o m h a l e r l d l i m e a l l y t  
e d l o l g p R C O O H t h r  
m l a l l h d R C O H f i t t e e v r r  
t o n l i f T P h H b y g l y c r l d h y d  
t h e s a f l l m t l e n g y l n e p t i  
t h t p l e d w i t h t h

i a d e o s n e d p h o p h a t e (A O P) a n d i o r g n i c  
p h s p h t e a t o d e m n e t r i p h o s p h a t e (A T P) a n  
e e g y t i n r e t i n i n w h c h t h e o i d a t o n e n  
r g v t u e a l l y p r e v e r n a s o c l l e d h g h e r g y  
p h p h t e b d a w i d e l y u s e b l o g i l e n r g y  
c r r e c y l i t h a b e n s u g e t e d t h a t i n p h o t o y n  
t h e i t h e r e r s h a p p n t h a t m t h r e d u c t o n o f  
p h o p h l y e r i c d t o p h o p h o g l y c r l d e h y d b y  
T P h H i m a d p o s s i b l e b y c o u p l i n g i t w i t h t h  
e n e g y s u p p l y g c o n c e r i n f A T P b a c k i n t  
A D P a d i o r g a i p h o s p h a t e

T h i t h e m o s t c o m m n v e r s i o n o f t h e m e c h  
n m o f p h t s y n t h e i a t p r e s e n t S i n c g l y c e r a l d e  
h y d e h a s t h e r e d u c t o n l e v e l f s a b h y d r a t  
(C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>12</sub>O<sub>6</sub> w i t h H<sub>2</sub>O 2 l) i t s e n z y m t e c o n  
v e s n o s a g a s f r e a m p l e t h e o e s f i n a l  
p r o d u c t r o t a p u t e a s C O c e p t o r t h u  
c l s n g t h e y l e c a n b e c m p l i t d w i t h o u t  
f u t h n e e d f o r l i g h t e n e r g y b y s y m t i c r e a c  
t i o n f t h e k i n d s w e l l k n o w n f r o m d i f f e r e t e p  
a t i n m e c h a n i s m s

**Photophosphorylation** I t h a b e e h w n o n b a c  
t e r i a l m a t r i a l n d n c h l o p l a t m t e r i a l f r o m  
g r e e n p l t t h a t i s m a t e r i a l w h e n i l l m i n a t e d n  
a b c e f c a r b o a t n a n d o x y g e n b u t i n t h e p r e s  
e c e o f A D P a d n g n p h o p h a t e l i g h t  
e e g y t o s y n t h e s i z e A T E T h e c u r r e n c e o f t h  
p h t p l p h r y l a t i o n c f i n s t h a t t h e n e r g y r e  
q u i r e d t e p i n p h t s y n t h e s i s c o l d p o  
c d b y c m b i e d c t n o f a l i g h t p r d u e d r d u c  
t a t u c h a s T P h H a n a n e n e g y i c h p h s p h a t  
a u h a s A T P T h c o u l d b e t h e c a s w h t h e r  
t h e r e d u c t i o n u b s t i s p h o p h l y c e r a c i d o  
m e t h e a b o j l t i n p o d e t I n a n y c a e a  
c r b x y l g r o u p R C O O H m u s t b e r e d e d a d t h  
a l w a q u e s a b o u t t h a m e e e s g y w h a t e r  
t h e n a t u r e o f t h e r a d c l R

I t h s b e n f r i e r s u g g e s t e d t h a t t h e m c h n i m  
b y w h c h t h A T P p r o d u c e d i s r e e s a l o f t h  
p h o t h m a l e a c i o n t h a t s a m o x i d a t i o n f  
T P h H t h e r b y o x y g e n o r b y o m e i n t e r m e d a t e  
o x d a t w h c t a p r e c u r s o r f f e e O i n t h e  
p h o t o c h m a l p o e I t k n o w n t h a t A T P m  
f m e d w i t h h g h e f f i n y n t l o d a t o n o f  
T P h H d n g r e p r t I t h a e n b e e n h y  
p o t h e s e d t h a t a l l l i g h t e e g y e d n p h t s y n  
t h e i f i r t v e r t d i n t p h s p h a t b o n d  
g r b u t t h a l d e m t o b i m p r a c t l

### Bacterial photosynthesis and chemosynthesis

C n p e c e s f p g m e n t e d b l a s m g r e n  
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different plants suggested its close parallelism with the action spectrum of photosynthesis. In other words fluorescence of chlorophyll in the plant can be excited also by light absorbed by the accessory pigments with the probability of this sensitized fluorescence closely paralleling that with which the same light is used for photosynthesis. Excitation of chlorophyll fluorescence by light quanta absorbed by phycoerythrin requires transfer of the excitation energy quantum from the primarily excited phycoerythrin molecule to a nearby chlorophyll molecule as in acoustic resonance where striking one bell causes another nearby bell to ring. Therefore it can be suggested that light quanta absorbed by accessory pigments such as carotenoids and phycobilins contribute to photosynthesis by being transferred to chlorophyll. By this mechanism red algae growing relatively deep under the sea where only blue-green light penetrates could supply the energy of this light to chlorophyll which does not absorb it.

If excitation energy can be transferred efficiently in the chloroplasts from accessory pigments to chlorophyll there is good probability that a similar transfer can and does occur also between different chlorophyll molecules themselves. If it happens repeatedly during the lifetime of excitation the excitation energy can migrate as such over considerable distances in the chloroplast. It was suggested in the section on distribution of chlorophyll that such migration may have advantages from the point of view of efficient utilization of absorbed light quanta for photosynthesis.

**Electron transfer in chloroplasts.** It has also been suggested that absorption of a light quantum in the dense layer of chlorophyll molecules may lift an electron into a state where it will be able to move through the lamella. This is comparable to photoconductivity a phenomenon known to occur in certain insulating crystals which become electric conductors in light. In this way an electron may become spatially separated from the positive chlorophyll ion and it then can act as reductant in one place in the chloroplast structure (addition of electron is equivalent to reduction for example the conversion of ferric ion  $Fe^{3+}$  to ferrous ion  $Fe^{2+}$ ) while the positive ion can act as an oxidant by taking an electron away from a substrate in another place. The oxidation and the reduction products of the light reaction will thus arise spatially separated and the danger of their recombination with the loss of stored energy is reduced.

This picture of photosynthesis as a process typical of a solid crystalline medium rather than of a solution is a tempting one. It has been supported by certain experiments on dried chloroplast films. However other considerations speak against it such as the similarity of the shape of the absorption band of chlorophyll in the living cell with its shape in solution and the fact that electrons can not remain free in the presence of water. Perhaps the solid state theory applies only to very small regions in the chloroplasts or grana containing 10 or 100 pigment molecules.

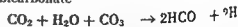
**Chemical role of chlorophyll.** Unless a solid state picture of the primary photochemical process in photosynthesis is assumed this question arises: how does the chlorophyll *a* molecule ultimately utilize it for an energy storing photochemical process such as the transfer of a hydrogen atom from a reluctant donor (perhaps water) to a reluctant acceptor (perhaps triphosphopyridine nucleotide TPN)? It has been suggested that chlorophyll acts as a typical oxidation-reduction catalyst, that is by being itself first oxidized and then reduced or vice versa with the difference that it uses its excitation energy either in one or in the other in both of the steps. Support for this plausible hypothesis is provided by observations of reversible photochemical oxidation and of reversible photochemical reduction of chlorophyll in solution. Studies of changes in the absorption spectrum of photosynthetic cells in light suggest that when photosynthesis approaches saturation a small fraction of chlorophyll (up to about 0.3%) finds itself during illumination in a changed perhaps in reduced state. However this conclusion needs further confirmation particularly since the difference spectrum from which it is derived shows also many other features some suggestive of a reversible change in the oxidation state of known constituents (cytochromes, pyridine nucleotides) some as yet of unknown origin.

### CARBON DIOXIDE REDUCTION

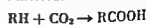
Since 1939 knowledge of the conversion of carbon dioxide into organic molecules such as glucose has been much advanced by the application of radioactive tracers particularly of  $C^{14}$ . It has been long assumed that the molecule  $CO_2$  is not reduced photochemically as such but first incorporated into a larger molecule. One early discussed possibility was that  $CO_2$  is first hydrated to carbonic acid  $H_2CO_3$  which then dissociates into  $H^+$  and  $HCO_3^-$  ions. It appears however that this hydration is too slow to keep pace with the rate of photosynthesis in strong light. Undoubtedly hydration of  $CO_2$



as well as its binding by conversion of carbonate into bicarbonate



does occur in plants but these processes are more likely to provide storage pools of carbon dioxide than to serve as channels through which it enters photosynthesis. The latter is now generally assumed to occur by way of carboxylation that is formation of an organic acid from a hydrogen-containing organic molecule



By the use of  $C^{14}$  tracer it has been found that the compound RH probably is a pentose that is a sugar with only five carbon atoms instead of the six present in the more common hexose. The pen-



different plants suggested its close parallelism with the action spectrum of photosynthesis. In other words fluorescence of chlorophyll *a* in the plant can be excited also by light absorbed by the accessory pigments with the probability of this sensitized fluorescence closely paralleling that with which the same light is used for photosynthesis. Excitation of chlorophyll fluorescence by light quanta absorbed by phycoerythrin requires transfer of the excitation energy quantum from the primarily excited phycoerythrin molecule to a nearby chlorophyll molecule as in acoustic resonance where striking one bell causes another nearby bell to ring. Therefore it can be suggested that light quanta absorbed by accessory pigments such as carotenoids and phycobilins contribute to photosynthesis by being transferred to chlorophyll. By this mechanism red algae growing relatively deep under the sea where only blue-green light penetrates could supply the energy of this light to chlorophyll which does not absorb it.

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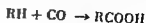
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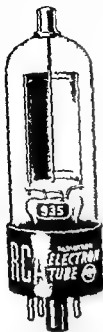


Fig 1 Type 1 vacuum phototube

the current emitted per unit of incident monochromatic radiant power. The spectral sensitivity characteristic of a phototube is the cathode radiant sensitivity as a function of the wavelength of incident radiation upon the window of the phototube.

Spectral sensitivity characteristics are shown in Fig 2 and are designated by standard symbol S-1, S-3, etc. The half-power sensitivity on the short wavelength side of the curves is determined primarily by the transmission characteristics of the glass envelope or window of the phototube. The long wavelength limit of radiant sensitivity is the threshold wavelength of the photocathode.

The sensitivity of a phototube is measured in terms of sensitivity to incident luminous flux from a specified source of light. It is expressed in microamperes per lumen. The source normally used is a tungsten filament lamp operating at a filament temperature of 2870 K. Cathode sensitivity is also defined in terms of relative quantum efficiency. The quantum efficiency of a phototube is the number of electrons emitted per incident photon of a given wavelength. Because the energy per photon of wavelength  $\lambda$  is  $hc/\lambda$  where  $h$  is Planck's constant and  $c$  is the velocity of light in vacuum, the quantum efficiency at a wavelength  $\lambda$  is simply the

ratio of the photocathode current to the incident light flux. The quantum efficiency is limited by the quantum yield of the photocathode material. The quantum yield is the number of electrons emitted per incident photon. The quantum yield is a function of the wavelength of the incident light. The quantum yield is a function of the wavelength of the incident light. The quantum yield is a function of the wavelength of the incident light.

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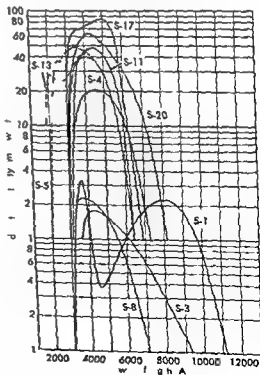


Fig 2 A graph of spectral sensitivity for various types of phototubes



hydrogen or organic compound. In the latter case the bacteria destroy one kind of organic matter to synthesize another.

Because hydrogen is bound nowhere as strongly as in water these types of photosynthesis store little if any light energy. Therefore they do not have the same significance as true photosynthesis in the transformation and storage of cosmic energy on earth. In fact all they can do is to use chemical energy where it is already available in the form of unstable hydrogen compounds. Light energy is used by them merely or mainly as chemical activation energy as it is also used in most photochemical reactions in vitro.

It is unknown whether bacterial photosynthesis is an earlier mode of life preceding true photosynthesis or a later form of life into which true photosynthesis has degenerated in chemical surroundings providing certain sources of hydrogen. In any case bacterial photosynthesis is bound to remain limited to a few natural habitats such as stagnant canal waters, volcanic sulfur springs, and similar habitats.

For the sake of completeness mention should be made also of chemosynthetic bacteria cells which can achieve the conversion of carbon dioxide to organic matter with the help of hydrogen donors similar to those utilized by photosynthetic bacteria but without the help of light. They simply burn chemical fuel by a mechanism permitting them to salvage some combustion energy in the form of reduced carbon dioxide. In the simplest case that of so-called hydrogen bacteria the cells change molecular hydrogen to water and use some of the liberated energy to transfer a part of the hydrogen to carbon dioxide. Whereas photosynthetic bacteria can live anaerobically the chemosynthetic ones require oxygen to keep their energy liberating process in operation. Some chemosynthetic organisms have developed wherever oxidizable material is present in nature such as coal, oil, free hydrogen, sulfur compound, ammonia, nitrite, or ferrous salts. Again the question can be asked: what is the evolutionary role of the chemosynthetic way of life? Is it a predecessor of photosynthesis or is it a degradation of photosynthesis under specially easy conditions of abundant chemical energy supply?

[FR]

*Bibliography:* J. A. B. Ham and M. Calvin, *Path of Carbon in Photosynthesis*, 1977; J. Franck and W. F. Loomis (ed.), *Photosynthesis in Plants*, 1949; H. Gaffron et al. (ed.), *Research in Photosynthesis*, 1977; H. Hill and C. P. Whittingham, *Photosynthesis*, 1955; F. J. Rabinowitz, *Photosynthesis and Related Processes*, 3 vols., 1947-1956.

## Phototransistor

A semiconductor device with electrical characteristics that are light sensitive. Phototransistors differ from photoresistors in that the primary photoelectric current is multiplied internally in the device, thus increasing the sensitivity to light. For a discussion of the current multiplication property see TRANSISTOR.

Some types of phototransistors are supplied with a third or base lead. This lead enables the phototransistor to be used as a switch or bistable device. The application of a small amount of light causes the device to switch from a low current to a high current condition. See PHOTOELECTRIC DEVICES. [W.R.]

## Phototube

An electron tube containing a photocathode from which electrons are emitted when it is exposed to light or other electromagnetic radiation. An elementary vacuum phototube consists of a photocathode, an anode or electron collector, and an evacuated envelope through which radiation is transmitted to the photocathode. A gas phototube contains in addition an inert gas which may be ionized by electron current from the photocathode. For a description of a phototube in which the electron current is amplified by means of a secondary emission electron multiplier see PHOTOTUBE MULTIPLIER.

Phototubes serve as sensing elements in the detection and measurement of light and ultraviolet infrared radiation. Phototubes also convert variations in intensity of incident radiation into corresponding variation in electron output current, as in light controlled relay circuits and in the conversion of sound modulation of photographic film into audio frequency current, as in the sound track on motion picture film.

The fundamental characteristics of a phototube are its spectral sensitivity characteristic or output current expressed as a function of the wavelength of incident radiation at constant anode voltage and its anode current characteristic which shows the dependence of anode current on applied voltage and radiant flux input. Gas phototubes do not differ from vacuum phototubes with regard to spectral sensitivity characteristics which are described below, but their anode current characteristics are essentially different.

**Principles of operation.** The anode current of a vacuum phototube is directly proportional to the intensity of radiation incident on its photocathode. The anode is normally connected to a positive potential of at least 20 volts relative to the photocathode in order that the anode current be limited by photoelectric emission rather than by space charge or electron emission velocity. A typical vacuum phototube is shown in Fig. 1. See PHOTOELECTRON.

In a gas phototube the photoelectric current is amplified by partial ionization of a gas contained in the tube at low pressure. An inert gas such as neon or argon is used because the photocathode reacts chemically with other gases. At low anode voltages the anode current of a gas phototube is emission limited like that of a vacuum phototube. At anode potential greater than 250 volts the electron emitted from the photocathode acquires sufficient energy to ionize molecules of the gas at mean free path total current is then the sum of the free electron current and the secondary electron current and the current is a second

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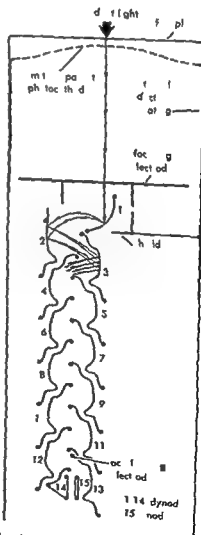
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effluent gas contaminants which cannot be baked out of the phototube after the photocathode is formed. (JLWE)

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*Photoelectric Phenomena* 1932 A. H. Sommer  
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### Phototube multiplier

A phototube which consists of one or more secondary electron emitting electrodes or dynodes between its photocathode and output electrode is also called photomultiplier tube. Electrons emitted by the photocathode initiate a cascade of secondary emission from dynode to dynode and ultimately to the output electrode or anode. Because of the high voltage amplification thus obtained a multiple phototube is used in applications which require high photoelectric sensitivity and fast response to changes in the intensity of radiation input.



Typical multiphase structure

## Average cathode characteristics

Spectral sensitivity characteristic	Cathode material	Wavelength of maximum response Å	Peak radiant sensitivity ma/watt	Peak cathode quantum efficiency %	Luminous sensitivity $\frac{1}{\mu\text{m/lumen}}$	Remarks
S 1	Cs O Ag	8000	2	0.3	~	
S-3	Rb O Ag	4 00	18	0.5	60	
S 4	Cs <sub>2</sub> Sb	4000	40	12.4	40	
S-5	Cs <sub>2</sub> Sb	3400	49	17.8	40	Ultraviolet transmitting window
S-8	Cs Bi	3650	23	0.8	3	
S-10	Bi Ag O Cs	4500	0.3	5.6	40	Semitransparent
S-11	Cs Sb	4100	48	13.5	60	Semitransparent
S-13	Cs <sub>2</sub> Sb	4400	47	13.2	60	Semitransparent ultraviolet transmitting window
S-17	Cs Sb	4900	80	14	105	Semitransparent, no reflecting substrate
S-20	(NaKCs)Sb	4 00	64	18.8	150	Semitransparent

These characteristics shown in Fig. 2 refer to typical phototubes rather than to photocathodes.

† Light source is a tungsten filament lamp operated at a color temperature of 3000 K.

radiant sensitivity of the photocathode multiplied by the factor  $hc/\lambda$  in appropriate units. Typical quantum efficiencies are listed in the table.

**Photocathode material** Photocathode of practical importance contain one or more of the alkali metals lithium sodium potassium rubidium or cesium in complex combination with other metal or with oxides of certain metals. Because of their high reflectivity and conductivity the pure alkali metals have lower quantum efficiencies than do the more complex photocathode which invariably are semiconductors.

Practical photocathodes may be classified broadly under two prototypes: the cesium oxide-silver cathode and the cesium antimonide cathode. The cesium oxide-silver cathode is obtained by permitting cesium to react with a thin layer of silver oxide. The resultant cathode layer is cesium oxide containing silver possibly oxides more complex than Cs<sub>2</sub>O and a critical excess of cesium. Phototubes which contain this photocathode have the S1 spectral sensitivity characteristic. The rubidium oxide-silver cathode is produced in a similar manner.

The cesium antimonide photocathode is obtained by exposing a thin layer of antimony to cesium vapor at elevated temperature. The cathode surface is an intermetallic compound cesium antimonide containing an excess of cesium. This cathode has maximum sensitivity in the blue and ultraviolet regions of the spectrum and a threshold wavelength at about 6500 angstroms (Å). The cesium bismuth cathode is similar to the cesium antimonide cathode in composition and in method of preparation.

The bismuth silver oxygen cesium cathode is formed by cesium activation of an oxidized layer of silver and bismuth. The S-10 characteristic is associated with this type of photocathode. It is an effective combination of the blue response of the cesium bismuth cathode and the red response of

the cesium oxide-silver cathode. This broad characteristic which extends over most of the visible spectrum is a desirable feature for phototubes used in photometry and colorimetry.

The sodium potassium cesium antimony or trialkali photocathode is produced by exposing a thin antimony layer to vapors of the alkali metals. This cathode has a higher peak radiant sensitivity than do any of the photocathodes mentioned above. Its spectral sensitivity characteristic extends from ultraviolet to infrared wavelengths. The trialkali photocathode is therefore an excellent panchromatic detector of visible and near visible radiation.

**Photocathode construction** A photocathode may be either an opaque layer of the emissive material on a metal electrode or an emitting partial layer on glass. A semitransparent layer is deposited directly on the window or envelope of the phototube. A portion of the layer overlaps a high conductivity layer of aluminum or other metal which provides electrical contact to the photocathode. Radiation transmitted through the window is incident upon one side of the layer while electrons are emitted photoelectrically from the opposite or rear surface of the layer. This type of photocathode is commonly used in multiplier phototubes having S1, S10, S11, S-13 or S-20 characteristics.

A semitransparent cathode may also be formed on an opaque highly reflecting metal surface. Radiation transmitted through the cathode layer is reflected into and partially absorbed by a relatively thin layer from which photoelectrically excited electrons can readily escape. The high radiant sensitivity of this type of photocathode is illustrated by the S-17 spectral sensitivity characteristic.

**Dark current** Dark current is the current measured at the terminal of a phototube when it is shielded from all radiation capable of causing photoelectric emission from its photocathode. Two common causes of dark current are electric

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**Photovoltaic cell**

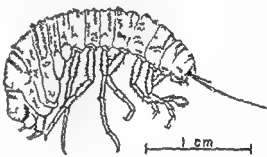
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 u p o n a b s o r p t i o n o f a d n e r g y T y p i c l j u n  
 t f r p h t v l t c e l l s a r a l c o n s l n h o  
 d e l n i u m i r m c o p p e i d e e p p e  
 Th d e t e c t o n r m e a r m n t i p e f r m d b y  
 n n c t n g t h e l l d r e t l y t a g a l a m e t  
 h e e r d g f u n i f t h e n t e n t y f a  
 d t f a l l g n t h e l l  
 Ph t l t l l a u e d p u r e r t e s  
 i n p h t g r a p h y a n d a e u e d i n u t m a t t o e n e  
 g n u e l a y Th l r b a t t r y t y p e f  
 p h t l t l l m y b u d a a s o n c l e l e  
 t r t f r p r b i a d a n d t e l e p h o n e e l a y s  
 A p f o l i a c e l l h s p r a t i a l l y d a k c u r  
 r e t l i g e r l y n t d p t d i b u d w i t h  
 m p l f i S e P H O T O E L E C T R C D V I C E S P H O T O  
 V O L T A I C E F F E C T S O A R B A T T E R Y [ J J R O ]  
 B b l g a p h y S t a n d r d R e h I t t P o  
 d g R f d S y m p m A p p l d S l E  
 e g y 1956

**Photovoltaic effect**

A t r m m t o m o n l y e d i t m a n t h p d u c  
 t o f a o l t g e a n t m g o e m i c n  
 d t r t l n b y t h a b o r p t n f l h t  
 o r t r e l t m g n t d t w o I n t m p l e t  
 f r m t h p h t l t e f f e c t o u s t h e o m m n  
 p h t l t l l u e d f r e x m p l e n o l r b t  
 t e d p o r m t r Th p h t l t a c l l  
 n i s f i n p j u i n b t w t w d f f e t  
 m n d u t n t y p m a t a l w h h n  
 d u s n d t l e c t s a d a p t y m t e l  
 n w h d e t i s d u e t p o s i t h l e W h e n  
 l g h t h a r d e d h j n e t n e w m h l e  
 l e c t m d h l e s a d m p h t o n  
 d t A d d i t n i s f r e i p h t l t i  
 l l h e v t h t i t h l t f i l d i  
 t h j u n t n g b e t h e t w m d u t  
 t y p e s Th l e e d c h g m t h f i l l Th  
 n t f w a n x t m l u t w h o t h  
 r e d l h t q u r e d p h t o n d t n  
 l f t h x t l r t b k n p e r t  
 p h t l t a p p e t t h b e k  
 l t t h m p l l e a t l y t i s i m  
 l l m s i f t h l t r o d m a y g i t o a  
 t s t h a t l e d p h t l t a S E x p o  
 r m t e r P H O T O C O D E C T R I C P H O T O V O L T A I C  
 I L L S E M I O N D n S O L A R n t r n y [ L ]  
 B l l g a p h y A t a 3 7 J S l d S t r t P h y  
 i f l i 19

**Phreatoicoidea**

A sub r d e r o f t h I o p o d s a n d l C u s t a c a T h e  
 b o d y y b c y l n d r i a l a p p e a r n g l a t e r a l l y c o m  
 p r e s e d m a n l y b e c u o f t h e d w n w a r d d e v e l o p m e n t o f t h e p l e r a f t h e p l e n T h e f i r t a n d o c c a s i o n a l l y t h e e r n d t h r a s g m n t i s f e d w i t h t h e h e d A n t e n n u l e s r e s h r t e r t h a n t h a n t e n n a e T h e y s m a y b e l a m i l l o r a b e t M u t h p r t s e p r i m a r i l y T h f i s t f o u r p a r s f e r 10 p d a r e d e c t e d f w a r d w h i l e t h e p o s t e r i o t h r e e p a r s a r e d e c t e d b e k w a d T h e f i r s t p a r s s u b c h e l a t e T h p l e o n h a s s x d i s t n e t e g m e n t s w i t h t h e f a t b e n g f u d w i t h t h e t e l n b u t m a r k e d f o m t b y s t u e P l e o p o d s a r b o a d f o l a c e o n a d b n e c h a l f u n c t i o n w h i l e t h u r o p o d a r b r a m o u s a n d l a t e r a l T h s u b o r d e r i s d i v d d t t w o f a m l s i t h A n p h i o p d a e l a n g b t h m a n d b l e s w t h a l a n a m o b i l s a n d t h e P h r e a t o i c a e i n w h c h n l y t h e l f i m a n d b l e r e t i n s a l a c i a m o b l



O h f f b d t ( S m t h ) a d f t m l

The s b o d e r s n a r e t d i l d e s  
 f l P t m p h i s o p u s i m t t e n i s ( C h l t o n )  
 f r m t h T i s s b d s o f N w S o t h W a l e T h r e e  
 x t t p e m a m e d e d f o m A u s t r a l i A  
 m a N e w Z e l d n d S t h A f i c a a n d o n e  
 t h a t s u b i t e a n n f m i n d

The m a j r t f p e r s o c u r i n f r e s h w a t e r  
 S r l r e b l n d b i e r a a n f o m a n d n e c  
 c u n h o t w t f e r m d e p a r t s a n b r e s A f w  
 s e m t e r t a l b u r r o w g f r o m [ e m s ]  
 B b l o g p h y G N i c h l l P p s d P o c  
 R y S T s m o 1943 1-145 1944 1-157  
 F S h p p a r d P c Z t S o L o d n 1927 1 81-  
 124

**Phthalic acid**

O f t h e t h r e b e n d a b o x y l i a c i d o f  
 f o r m u l a C 6 H 4 ( C O O H ) 2 o P h t h l ( o m p l y  
 p h t h a l ) a d m l t n g p o t 191 C ( a l d i b )  
 s t h l a t m r s p h t h l ( r p h t h a l )  
 a d m l t g p a t 347-348 C t h e l i s o m  
 t e p h t h a l d m e l t n g p o n t 425 C ( l e d  
 s u b ) t h e l 4 s o m e

The i d p r e p r e d b p r m a n n a t e o r  
 c h r m e i d x d a t a ( p p r p r t x y l n r  
 b y p a r t i l i r n a t o f t h e x l n f l l o w d b y  
 b a t e b v d l y a n d f i n a l l y o x d t o n o P h t h a l c

A multiplier phototube may be described by specifying its photocathode, the secondary emission characteristic of its dynodes, and the type of dynode assembly or multiplier structure used in the tube. The photocathode may be any one of the types discussed in connection with vacuum and gas phototubes. For a description of various photocathodes and their characteristics, see PHOTOCATHODES.

**Operation.** In a multiplier phototube, electrons emitted from the photocathode are accelerated toward the first dynode, where they liberate secondary electrons. Similarly, the secondary electrons are directed toward the second dynode and cause emission of a larger number of secondary electrons. This process is repeated at all dynode stages of the multiplier structure, which typically contains 6-14 stages. Each dynode is operated at a more positive potential than that of the dynode preceding it, the potential increasing by tens or hundreds of volts per dynode stage. In this manner, current amplification factors of many millions are obtainable. The secondary emission from the last dynode is collected as anode current at the output electrode. When high amplification factors are involved, the output section of the multiplier must be well isolated from the input.

Depending on the method by which electrons are directed from dynode to dynode, multiplier structures may be classified as unfocused, electrostatically focused, and electromagnetically focused. In unfocused structures, such as the grid-Venetian blind and box types, electrons are simply accelerated from dynode to dynode by means of grid. In electrostatically focused multipliers, a portion of each dynode serves to shape the electric field between dynodes in such a manner that secondary emission from one dynode is focused upon the optimum area of the following dynode. Mutually perpendicular electric and magnetic fields provide similar focusing of secondary electrons in electromagnetically focused multipliers.

The transmission type of multiplier may be electrostatically or electromagnetically focused. In a transmission type of multiplier, the dynodes are thin plane electrodes stacked in a parallel array. High energy primary electrons incident on the metallic surface of each dynode are scattered in a thin metal film and cause secondary emission from a secondary emission layer on the opposite surface of the dynode. This type of multiplier requires potential of a few kilovolts between successive dynodes in order to cause electron to penetrate the metal film.

**Dynode coatings.** Of the many secondary electron-emitting materials available, only a few are commonly used as dynode surfaces in multiplier phototubes. The materials have comparatively high secondary electron emission coefficient at primary electron energies of the order of 100 electron volts, and they can be used compatibly with certain photochemicals in the same envelope. Typical dynode surfaces are cesium antimonide, on nickel or other metal, magnesium oxide, or silver

magnesium alloy, and beryllium oxide on copper-beryllium alloy. The cesium antimonide is formed by reaction of a thin antimony layer on the dynode with cesium vapor. Its secondary emission coefficient is about 5 at primary electron voltages between 100 and 120. The magnesium oxide and beryllium oxide surfaces are formed by surface oxidation of silver-magnesium and copper-beryllium alloys. The dynodes have a secondary emission coefficient of approximately 3 for 100-volt primary electron.

**Sensitivity.** The sensitivity of a multiplier phototube is the product of the photoelectric emission of its photocathode and the current amplification of its multiplier structure. In the visible and near-visible regions of the spectrum, the emission from typical photocathodes is of the order of 10-100 milliamperes per watt of incident radiation. The sensitivity of a high-gain multiplier phototube is accordingly many thousands of amperes per watt of radiation incident on its photocathode. At constant supply voltages, the signal output current of a multiplier phototube is directly proportional to radiant flux input over many orders of magnitude. However, average output currents greater than a few milliamperes cause a gradual decrease in secondary emission of the last few dynode stages, where current densities are highest.

Anode dark current of a multiplier phototube is the current observed at the anode in the absence of all radiation capable of causing photoelectric emission from its photocathode. Under normal conditions of tube temperature and supply voltage, the dark current is predominantly amplified thermionic emission from the photocathode. This component of the anode dark current is proportional to the area of the photocathode. It can be reduced appreciably by cooling the cathode. The ultimate limit of detectability of a multiplier phototube is set by the hot noise associated with the amplified thermionic dark current. The rms noise current measured at the anode is proportional to the square root of the product of cathode emission and the bandwidth of the output circuit. The rms noise current per unit bandwidth resulting from thermionic emission in typical multiplier phototube is equivalent to input of about  $10^{-10}$  watt of modulated radiation incident on the photocathode at normal ambient temperature.

Multiplier phototubes are used in the detection of very low levels of visible and near-visible radiation. Typical uses include astronomical star tracking, low-level photometry, and particle counting. In particle counting, a multiplier phototube, with a cesium antimonide photocathode, is connected in series with a circulating material to produce output current pulses which are proportional to the energy of gamma rays, nuclear particle capture, or exciting the scintillator. In the case of application as a multiplier phototube, a useful operating life of thousands of hours is possible with small changes in secondary emission at high dynode voltages.



acid commercially the most important of the three is manufactured mainly by vapor phase oxidation of naphthalene over a vanadium pentoxide catalyst at about 480 C whereby the product phthalic anhydride sublimes from the reaction zone in a state of high purity See OXIDATION PROCESS

Phthalic acids are used in chemical analysis in preparation of esters (methyl ethyl and butyl phthalates) and in preparation of phthaloyl chlorides  $C_6H_4(COCl)_2$  from the acid and phosphorus pentachloride Phthalic anhydride can be decarboxylated to benzoic acid and can be used in the synthesis of indigo and derivatives of anthraquinone Phthalic anhydride reacts at elevated temperature with polyalcohols (ethylene glycol or glycerol) to form polyesters which are used as plastics With ammonia phthalic anhydride gives phthalimide Terephthalic acid heated with ethylene glycol gives polyesters used as synthetic fiber See ACID ANHYDRIDE CARBOXYLIC ACID PHTHALIMIDE POLYESTER RESINS XYLENE [E B R]

## Phthalimide

The imide of *o* phthalic acid also called 1,3-isobenzodione The melting point of phthalimide is 238 C and it is only slightly soluble in water It is a weak acid  $K_a = 5 \times 10^{-9}$  The substance is prepared commercially by the reaction of molten phthalic anhydride and ammonia in the laboratory phthalic anhydride and either ammonium hydroxide or ammonium carbonate are used

In the form of its sodium or potassium salt it is widely used in the synthesis of both primary amines and amino acids It is also combined with the malonic ester in the synthesis of complex amino acids

Phthalimide is used as starting material in the synthesis of methyl anthranilate the active principle in jasmine and orange oils See AMIDE ACID AMINE PHTHALIC ACID [E B R]

## Phycomycetes

A class of fungi of the subdivision (or in the opinion of some mycologists division) Eumycetes or Eumycophyta The Phycomycetes are the most primitive of the true fungi Many species live in the water and are superficially similar to certain green algae In addition to the aquatic Phycomycetes there are other species that live in the soil Modern studies indicate that the Phycomycetes evolved independently along several lines from colorless flagellate ancestors Some phycomycetous species cause diseases in crops man and animals some parasitize insects and fish some cause food damage in the home and ruin fruit and vegetable rots in transit and storage other species are used in industrial fermentation processes

As in all Eumycophyta the growing vegetative thallus is enclosed in a definite cellular wall so that nutrient material must enter the organism in solution Two morphological features distinguish the Phycomycete from other classes of fungi (1) The actively growing portions of the plant

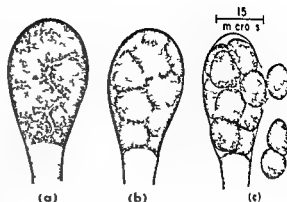


Fig 1 Progressive cleavage in a sporangium of the water mold *Thraustotheca* (a) First cleavage plane is just apparent (b) Cleavage planes nearly completed (c) Fully formed sporangiospores being released from sporangial wall (From Fitzpatrick 1930 after West)

body lack regularly spaced septa or cross walls. Septa are generally formed only where reproductive structures arise or in older relatively inactive regions of the mycelium (2) The fundamental sexual reproductive unit is the sporangium produced in the sporangium by a distinctive process termed progressive cleavage (Fig 1) Starting with a multinucleate or coenocytic mass of protoplasm contained in the young sporangium a pattern of cross walls is progressively formed until the entire protoplast is divided into units each of which ultimately matures into a spore Although each unit usually has a single nucleus binucleate or multinucleate spores are formed exceptionally in certain species and regularly in others

**Morphology and reproduction** The phycomycetous thallus or plant body ranges from a single globular cell without branches of any sort (Fig 2a) in the simplest of the Chytridiales to globally elongate or branched forms with basal rhizoids (Figs 2b and 4) and finally to a typical extensively branched and often cottony mycelium in the Peronosporales and Mucorales

Reproductive processes are also highly variable Sexuality is widespread and involves the production of one or more gametes or sex cells in each gametangium just as spores are formed in a sporangium Syngamy which is the fusion of two gametes takes place through a number of different mechanisms One of them involves the release and subsequent fusion of motile gametes If these are morphologically indistinguishable they are referred to as plus (+) and minus (-) types if they are of different size the smaller one is indicated as the male ( $\delta$ ) the larger as the female ( $\sigma$ ) gamete (Fig 3a b) Other mechanisms include the fertilization of a large nonmotile egg by a small free-swimming sperm cell (Fig 3c) the passage of male nuclei to the eggs through fertilization tubes (Fig 3d) or the direct fusion of like or unlike gametangia (Fig 5b) Syngamy often occurs between sex cells from a single hermaphroditic thallus but in many other instances fusion will occur





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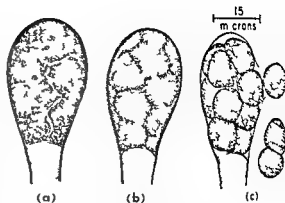


Fig 1 Progressive cleavage in a sporangium of the water mold *Thraxia theca* (a) First cleavage plane just apparent (b) Cleavage planes nearly completed (c) Fully formed sporangiospores being released from sporangial wall (From Fitzpatrick 1930 after Weston)

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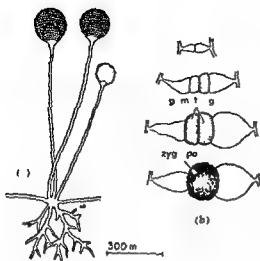


Fig 5 R p d c t h M l ( ) The p  
og l i l k s a d p t h m d m l d R h  
p t h f m l h w t h n t h p m o  
of t h t w l g m t p u u H J F J  
d O T p C l g B i y d H H 1954  
(b) t g t h u f p d c t f R h p d  
c t f f g m t g h t h f m t of  
h v w l l e d y g p (F m M C C H The  
S i r y f t h P l t K g d m U r C h p P 1925)

b d n d t l l y t e n r i t r h y m t i a l s  
t h e a m y l p o s a f o r l t l p r o d u c  
t S F T H Y L A L C O H O L

W h e a s o m p h y c m y t o u p e c e s e d b y  
n o r g r f a r b n a d e n e r g m a v h e  
m r m y l e g w i q m e n t T h m n  
w d p a d q r e m n t h u g h t h g r p d  
P h y m y h l g b d b s a y r  
k n m f r t h t a m O t h d e m t r t e d u t  
t q u r m n t m t l a m o n g t h q u t c g n  
r p a m n b e n z a i d b t n o t m d e  
m t h n n i s t o l a n d o g r c o m p l x  
t h t o f w h h t l l e c l e r c o m p l x  
d f i t e c h m l t d h a e b m a d e t  
g g t e l t h t h e l l w a l l f t h e P h y m y e t  
a e p b a b l y h z n m o t g e a l l n  
s m e n d p o s s i b l y m b n t n f t h e t w o n  
t h r

T h P h y o m y t l p d d t l f  
m y f n d m t l b l g a l t d e N t w o t h y  
m g t h a e e n t t g a t s e l t g t  
h m n t l l d a l t y A h y a h y d t y  
d f f t t d e p d u t e b e h a r e l  
g n a f w B c o l a d l e n d l g h t d d  
g w t h r p a n i u M l s [ a ]  
B b l g p h y F A B e e y M p h l e y a d  
T m y f u g 1950 H V F t a p t i k T h  
L F g i P h y m y t 1930 F k S p r e w  
J A q u P h y m y t 2 d e d 1960

### Phylactolaemata

A f f t h e p h y l m B r z o T h u g h u m b i n g  
f e t h 50 p m t h c l a c o m p l a  
o c n g i f t w i f y n t e n t n d

1 many climates The colonies with some excep-  
tion die at the end of winter New ciliated  
by germination of dormant ciliated bodies called  
statoblasts which later remain viable over winter  
or dry season Statoblasts of each family are dis-  
tinct (Fig 1)

The most commonly encountered family Plumatellidae has the blatt and species fl-  
to-ll ts. It may like ciliates are firm yellowish to  
brown chitinous r m ted with tubular  
bran hng zo d topped by attached polyp de

Criatellidae and Lophopodidae form the cl-  
orle s gelatinous flagellate ciliates having limited  
p w r c l m t u n o m e c r e e p a l n g t h u l  
tratum They have spinoblast but n e l l a t

Fredericidae emblematic plumatellid in c l  
y app rance l u l l a e n l y l l s o r p i p t o -  
b l t s

Most phylactolaemataous lophophore are hor e  
sh e shaped (Fig 2) and the tentacles number  
16-106 A flexible muscular hollow ciliated fold  
the epistome, changing the mouth into the neural

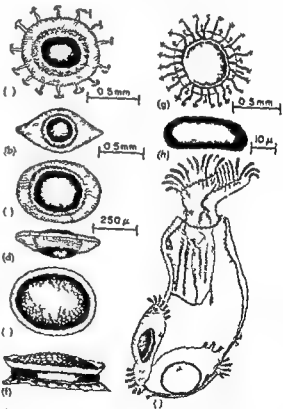


Fig 1 Statoblasts of Phylactolaemata ( ) P c t  
t l l m g f p o b l t (b) L p h p r y s t l l  
p b l t ( ) P l m t l l m f l o a t b l t (d) H y  
l l l p d t f l o a t b l t d g w f e i w  
w l d h m l t h P l m t l l f l o a t b l t l ( )  
( ) S t l l d a e b l t f w u l m s  
i g l t s f l o a t (f) S t l l d b l s t  
d g e w (g) C s t l l m d p b l t (h) F d  
t r f t b l t o p p t b l t ( ) G e m o t d  
L p h p d l a r t t b l t (p b l t t h g w t h  
f t h f i t w d p u s h g p r t t w v l

## Tabular summary of the Phycomycetes

Order	Habitat	Thallus	Spores	Representative genera
Chytriales	Mainly aquatic	Sacklike to rhizoidal	Zoospores with one posterior flagellum	<i>Olpidium</i> <i>Rhizophidium</i> <i>Synchytrium</i>
Blastocladales	Aquatic	Basal rhizoids and terminal hyphae	Zoospores with one posterior flagellum	<i>Allomyces</i> <i>Blastoclada</i>
Monoblepharidales	Aquatic	Mostly hyphal	Zoospores with one posterior flagellum	<i>Monoblepharidium</i> <i>Monoblephar</i>
Hypochytriales	Aquatic	Sacklike to limited hyphal	Zoospores with one anterior flagellum	<i>Rhizidium</i> <i>Hypochytr</i>
Saprolegniales	Aquatic	Mostly hyphal	Zoospores with two flagella	<i>Saprolegnia</i> <i>Achlya</i> <i>Aphanizomenon</i>
Leptomitales	Aquatic	Hyphal or basal rhizoids and terminal hyphae	Zoospores with two flagella	<i>Leptomit</i> <i>Saprover</i>
Lagenidiales	Aquatic	Sacklike to limited hyphal	Zoospores with two flagella	<i>Olpidopsis</i> <i>Lagenidium</i>
Peronosporales	Aquatic to terrestrial	Hyphal	Zoospores with two flagella or conidia	<i>Pythium</i> <i>Phytophthora</i> <i>Peronospora</i>
Entomophthorales	Mainly terrestrial	Hyphal	Nonmotile sporangiospores or conidia	<i>Entomophthora</i> <i>Basidiobolus</i>
Mucorales	Terrestrial	Hyphal	Nonmotile sporangiospores or conidia	<i>Mucor</i> <i>Rhizopus</i> <i>Pizobolus</i>

in the oceans. They grow saprophytically on every sort of natural organic material and parasitically on every major group of plants and many kinds of animals. Some are generalized scavengers while others prefer particular substrata like submerged fruits or the dung of herbivores, and still others concentrate upon cellulose, chitin, or hair. They range from weak facultative forms to the most highly obligate parasites. Among the serious crop diseases they cause are late blight of potatoes, seedling and storage rots, and the inquisitively downy mildews of grapes, tobacco, lettuce, and many other important economic plants. As insect parasites, the Entomophthorales play a role in natural control of insect infestations. The fish mold *Saprolegnia* is sometimes a pest in aquaria and fish hatcheries, and certain species of Mucorales have been implicated in mycoses of higher animals and man. See MYCOLOGY MEDICAL.

Except for the obligately parasitic Peronosporales, most of which remain to be cultured, many genera in all the major groups have been studied in pure culture and much is known about their nutrition and metabolism. Like most fungi, the Phycomycetes are generally obligate aerobes, requiring an oxygen tension of 20% or more for growth. However, Louis Pasteur showed that *Mucor* can cause alcoholic fermentation, and more recent evidence indicates that a number of the aquatic genera are actually facultative anaerobes, able to grow in the presence or absence of oxygen. Lactic acid is apparently one of the common products of metabolism, along with succinic acid, acetaldehyde, and various other compounds. Because of their strong carbohydrate capacity, species of *Rhizopus* have

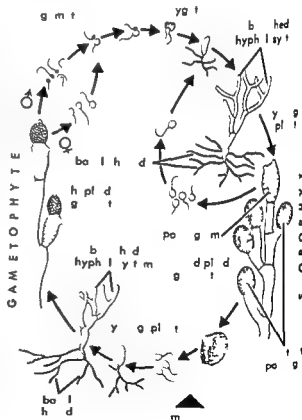


Fig. 4. Life cycle and reproductive behavior of the water mold *Allomyces*. Dpl d, post-bog plant; th, poophyt; alt, at with th hpl d g m t; bea g pla is th gametophyt; Th g m tophter; ae h mophotic ad l f r tle (S m d g am m t f m A T B e Sy gamy o d Alt) of Ge at s Allomyces phaeo (1953).



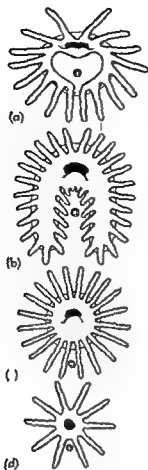


Fig 2 Bryozoan tentacular crown top view diagrammatic (a) *Loxosoma* ectoproct (b) *Platylasma* phylactolaematus ectoproct (c) *Fridellia* phylactolaematus ectoproct (d) *Bowerbankia* gymnotolaeus ectoproct

side. The gut is Y shaped and attached to the body wall by a funiculus, a thin ribbon of tissue from which statoblasts and sperms develop. The ovary is higher up on the body wall. See BRYOZOA. LOPHOPHORE. STATOBLASTS [M D R]

## Phyllite

A large group of regional metamorphic rocks derived from argillaceous sediments and recrystallized in the greenschist facies (low degree of metamorphism) essentially composed of white mica and quartz. Phyllites are fine grained, strongly schistose rocks and the chrysotile surface exhibits a glittery sheen, enhanced by mica. They are widely distributed and easily recognized. In the past geologists called them the lustrous schists of the mountain ranges (the *schistes lustrés* of the French and Swiss Alps). With very low metamorphism the phyllites pass into slates and with increasing metamorphism they pass into mica schists. See METAMORPHIC ROCKS. SCHIST. SLATE.

The simple mineral composition of the ordinary phyllite (quartz and muscovite) is explained by the rule of the paucity of mineral phases. With increasing content of iron, magnetite and iron mineral like chlorite, almandine-type garnet or chlorite

may develop. Among the garnetiferous phyllites may be mentioned the whetstone of the Ardennes. Chloritoid mineral are present in the orthogneiss schists of the Alps. Paragonite and cordierite mica are commonly present in phyllites.

Phyllite has a wide distribution in the crystalline mountain ranges of the world: the Highlands of Scotland, mountains of Norway, Harz Mountains and mountains of Saxony, the Alps, Appalachians and Great Lakes district of the United States. The schistosity of phyllites is sometimes flat but usually is crumpled and imperfect, rendering the rock unsuitable for roofing material. [TWA]

## Phyllocarida

This term has two rather different meanings in entomological literature. In the original wider sense the division Phyllocarida include both recent and fossil representatives of and is thus synonymous with the Malacostracan series Leptostraca. In the narrower sense adopted by many palaeontologists the fossil forms are placed in the order Phyllocarida, the order Nebaliaacea being restricted to the recent ones. See LEPTOSTRACA. NEBALIAACEA [TCA]

## Phyllonite

A metamorphic rock—the name is a combination of phyllite and mylonite. The phyllonites occupy a position between the rock types representing the component parts of the name. There are two distinct stages of their development. In the first stage the original rock is granulated by extreme deformation and pulverized to a mylonite. In the second stage but frequently overlapping the first stage in time, new minerals recrystallize and grow (this is called crystalloblastesis). B. Sander originally introduced the name for phyllite-like rocks which had suffered a deformation after recrystallization, regardless of whether they were derived from gneisses like the phyllites or from orthoquartzites. See METAMORPHIC ROCKS. MYLONITE. PHYLITE [TRW]

## Phymosomatoida

An order of Echinacea with a stirodont lantern and diademoid ambulacral plates, each interambulacral plate typically carries more than one primary tubercle (see ECHINODERMA). There are three families. The Pseudodiadematidae of the Jurassic and Cretaceous had perforate crenulate tubercles. The Phymomatidae with imperfectly reticulate tubercles arose in the Jurassic. One surviving genus, *Glyptodermis*, occurs off Japan. The Stomopneustidae with imperfectly noncrenulate tubercles, also range from the Jurassic and the late surviving genus *Stomopneustes* is a common Indo-Pacific littoral form. See ECHINACEA [HBR]

## Physical chemistry

Physical chemistry lies between physics and chemistry. It provides the theoretical basis of chemistry and explains and predicts phenomena in all

$$1 \text{ po} = \frac{1 \text{ dyne sec}}{\text{cm}}$$

# Physical measurement

I a d e g i e r n a d n m c h o f e r y  
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w g h t o l m d h d r d f t h e r p h y i a l  
q a t t e m t b d s b e d i t m w h h h a  
t h m e m i g t e e y o T l s i m d e p o  
b l b y o m p g t h e p h y c l q u a t t y o r o t t e r  
q n t i t y f t l l y r l t d a t b x p e d b y  
r p d b l q u n t i t y f t h a m k i n d n d f a  
f i e d m g i t d e d e f i n e d b t n d r d T h  
m g n t d m b d e d b y t h s t a d a d r m e d  
r f u t n o f t t k e t T h e c m  
p l a f e c t i f t t y r l t t o t d d  
f r p h y l m a u m m a l l d m e t l g y T h e  
m d q a t t y m y t h b x p e d b y  
a m b e ( t h m a t y d t o ) n d t h e n a m e o f t h e  
t f m p l l e t h f l 5 4 m e t r S e e  
U r s s y s t e m o r

Physical standards The US t a l t a d r d  
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t t l B f W g h t d M a u m  
F e t h n t f l g h t h m e t d f i e d a  
t h d s t b t w e e t w m a k t h b a T h  
t a d d f m p l t u m v l d r t m  
t k e s t h t t h k i l m T h t d d f i r  
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e t g y h b b i t d f m t h  
m l l ) T h d t b e t l y t  
t e d l t h g h t b p p h d e y l l y  
S A O L U E R O T I L m

Th t f t h p h y l q t t d f i n e d  
t m f t h f n t b y a p p p t d f i g  
q t F m p l f d f i d a t h p d  
t f m a d l t U t f l t h  
d r t h e t m t g m d ( g ) y t m  
d t h w t h m e t k i g m c d ( m k )  
y t m d f i d b y t h f l l w g q t

$$1 \text{ d} = 1 \text{ gram} \times \frac{1 \text{ cm/l}}{1}$$

$$1 \text{ wt u} = 1 \text{ kg} \times \frac{1 \text{ m/l}}{1}$$

A t h m p l t y t h f  
t p t l t y g d t T h t f  
t y t h p d f i d b y t h e q t

## See DIENSIONAL ANALY I

To f a i l t a t e m a u r m e n t o f m a y f i l e o t t e r  
q u a t t i e d e r i d a l l r t n t a n d a r d h a e  
b e e t a l l h d w h l e m b o d y r e j o d i e a c  
u r a t e l y o w n o r d e f n t a l e f t l e q u a n t i t i e  
c h a s t a d a d e l l f r o l t g e q a r t z c i l l a  
t o s f r f e q e n c y a n d p r e l i q i l f i t y

The d e f i n g e q a t i o n f r t h e u n i f m e  
t h r q u a n t i t i e l a e n u m e r a l f i n t c h  
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m e t r i c a l f a t r m p l y c a l p r o n p l

By t h r t r l y c h o o n g d i f f e r n t p h y i a l q u i s  
t t o w h i c h t h a t n t i n t e r m o f w h i h  
o l r q a t t i a e t d e f i n e d v a r t l r s  
t e m o f n t w l d b e p o s s i b l e i l w e r t h m n y  
d f f i c i e m k n g e x p e r i m n t a l t t t e t l l h  
u e f u l t a d r d w l d l t l r e l u d t h e r e  
m m d a t e p r p e c t f i n t n a t a l c h n g i f  
t h e s f u r q u a n t i f r w h l a r l t r a r y r a l  
l i s t n d r d s n d n t l b e e n t a l l d

There t h w e e l k e l h d t h a t t h e t a d a r d  
f r t h q a t t i w i l l b e h a s g e d S i n c t h e  
q e c y f a t o m i c u r a t i o n i p r i m e t l l y  
f n d t b e m c h m e a r l y c t n t h a n t h e  
f r e q u n y f t h e a t h t t n t f t n d a d f r  
t m m y s o m e d y l e t k e a t r a n t n f e  
q n y f a t m f p a r t i c l r t p e t l r  
q e y a b d e t e m e d p e e l y a n d e n i  
e t l y T h e t f t m t i e e c n d w l p l b i y  
b h a n g e d i m g t u d e b i t w l d l e d f i e d  
t t r m f t h a t o m e f r q n y S A T O T I C  
C L O C K

L k e w t h t a d a d f l g h t m y o o n b e r e  
d f i e d b y a t r n t a l a g c e m e t t e r m f t h e  
w a l n g t h o f a e r t a n p t a l l n e m t t e d b y  
k r y p t n T h e t o f l e g h t m t e w l d n t  
b e h g e d m a g n i t d b t r d e f i d t t e r m s f  
t h p r i c l a w e l g h t h o e T h e r e t w o  
a d i g n e d f i g h t t a d a r d f l e g h t i n  
t e m f w a l e g h t ( 1 ) t h e w e l e g h t c h  
g r t d w h e e e d d s o t h t m m a y ( a b  
l i t e ) t d d f l g h t l d b e a l b l  
l b t e s e v n h p t p e r m i t m a c  
t m e m n t a n d ( 2 ) t h c l e w a e  
l g h t p e m b l y c n t a t d n h a g  
w h t h e m t b m a y b s b y t t l w  
h a g d m s w i t h t m a n d f e e  
s b j e c t d t r u c t d m g r l S W A V E  
L E C T R S T A R D S

Th a p p t o b e m m e d t p r a t c l w a y  
f l z z g t a d d f m a s f m a t o m p p  
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O J l y 1 1959 b y g r m t a m g t h e n  
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what percentage yield of new products can be obtained at different temperatures and pressure. The equilibrium constants are determined experimentally by measuring the concentrations of the reactants and products at equilibrium or they are calculated with the help of thermodynamics. The equilibria are determined in gases or in liquid solutions.

If the system contains gases alone or only one liquid solution so that only one phase is present the equilibrium is said to be homogeneous. If the system contains more than one phase (gas, solid or liquid) the equilibrium is said to be heterogeneous. Phase diagrams describe the influence of concentration and temperature on the number of solid and liquid phases. The phase rule is useful in correlating the number of phases and the number of independent variables. See EQUILIBRIUM CHEMICAL.

**Kinetics** Chemical kinetics is that branch of physical chemistry which is concerned with the prediction of reaction rates and with understanding the mechanism of chemical reactions. In some reactions the rate depends directly on the concentration of the reacting material and in others on the square of the concentration. Most reactions are quite complex with several different reactions going on together so that the relation between concentration and rate is difficult to determine. The influence of temperature on reaction rate is important also. It is large most chemical reactions at room temperature doubling in rate for each 10°C rise in temperature. See KINETICS (CHEMICAL).

**Electrochemistry** The electrical conductance of solutions provide important information in physical chemistry. Most salts and inorganic acids and bases dissociate into electrically charged ions when dissolved in water. When charged electrodes are placed in such a solution the positive ions migrate to the negative electrode and the negative ions to the positive electrode. The conductivity of the solution depends both on the number of ions and on their velocity. When the ions reach the electrode they may undergo a chemical change to gain electrons at the cathode or to lose them at the anode. There is an exact relation between the quantity of electricity and the extent of the chemical change. According to Faraday's law 1 gram equivalent weight of material is electrolyzed for each 96,500 coulombs of electricity.

Equilibrium relation in solving ion gets important information on hydrolysis, solubility, electrolytic dissociation and the formation of complex ions.

The electromotive force or voltage of an electrochemical cell is an important quantity in physical chemistry. When suitable electrodes are surrounded by oxidizing or reducing ion and arranged in pairs definite voltages are generated which can be used for calculating the free energy of the chemical reaction involved and the corresponding equilibrium constant. The potential between a single electrode and its surrounding ion depends on the chemical

nature of the ions and on the concentration. Hydrogen electrode are widely used for determining the effective concentration of hydrogen ion. See ELECTROCHEMISTRY.

**Colloids** Colloids are very small particles which possess very large surface areas for a given weight. They adsorb ions, take on electrical charges, and acquire special properties which differ from those of true solutions and from systems which contain large particles. The study of colloids is a branch of physical chemistry which finds many applications in biology and in industry. See COLLOID.

**Molecular structure** Much valuable information concerning the chemical and physical properties of chemical compounds can be obtained from a knowledge of the molecular structure. The arrangement of atoms and electrons within the molecule and the attractive forces which hold them together can be determined from physical measurement of refractive index, rotation of polarized light, absorption of light of different wavelengths, diffraction of electron beam, and dielectric constant. Prediction of chemical behavior are made on the basis of the type of bonding. The electron pair which hold atoms together is particularly important in organic chemistry and the electrostatic binding is particularly important in inorganic chemistry. Quantitative calculations are made on the basis of quantum mechanics.

Ordinary thermal chemical reactions are brought about by acting collisions between rapidly moving molecules. They can be brought about also by the absorption of light. The branch of physical chemistry which studies the relation between activation by light and chemical reaction is known as photochemistry. Chemical activation produced by very high energy radiation such as x-ray or beta radiation is studied in a branch of physical chemistry known as radiation chemistry. See CHEMISTRY, MOLECULAR STRUCTURE AND SPECTRA, PHOTOCHEMISTRY. [R]

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## Physical law

A physical phenomenon is said to be controlled or governed by a physical law when the phenomenon is one of a broad class of phenomena such that it is possible to formulate some regularity which applies to all members of the class. If the phenomenon is on which an law is described in terms of numerical measurement the law is often formulated in terms of mathematical relation between the number obtained by measurement and in the inverse square law of universal gravitation. However a mathematical formulation of a natural law is by no means necessary.

It is implicit in the notion of physical law that there are no exceptions and unlike man-made law it may not be violated.





The corresponding value of the inch is now 254 centimeter exactly. The old United States yard and inch had been about two parts per million larger than the new yard and inch.

**Accuracy of measurements.** In general any measurement has less than perfect accuracy; there is some error or uncertainty as to the true or exact numerical ratio between the measured quantity and the unit. These errors are either observation or calibration errors. Observation errors are errors or uncertainties in reading scales and interpolating between scale divisions or in synchronizing the readings with the events. Calibration errors are errors or uncertainties in the conversion factors relating the primary measured quantity and its representative quantity (such as when acceleration is measured in terms of the voltage generated in a piezoelectric material) or in the relation between the indicated readings and the units of the final measured quantity.

There are practical limits to the statistical exactness of comparison even with repeated measurement. Furthermore there are other sources of error due to inherent imperfections of materials and structures which cause the phenomena of drift, lag, hysteresis, damping, and resonance.

**Drift** is the gradual change of instrument reading after a change to a different but constant value of the measured quantity.

**Lag** is failure of the instrument reading to follow changes in the measured quantity instantly or exactly. The time constant of an instrument is the time required for the indication to change by  $1/e$  of a sudden change in the measured quantity in response to this change. See **TIME CONSTANT**.

**Hysteresis** which results from lag or drift is the difference between readings of the measured quantity for corresponding actual magnitudes of that quantity when the quantity is increasing and when it is decreasing.

**Damping** is the result of frictional forces (either viscous or coulomb) which cause greater lag than that due to inertial effects alone. See **DAMPING**.

**Resonance** is the condition of oscillation which results when the rapidity of change of measured quantity is close to the natural rapidity of response of the instrument. See **RESONANCE (ACOUSTICS AND MECHANICS)**.

The change of properties of materials or structures with temperature, pressure, humidity, radiation, vibration or other environmental conditions may also cause errors. Thus the analysis of experiments to detect all possible sources of error, the design of experimental procedures to minimize them, and the development of mathematical techniques for estimating their probable magnitudes constitute an important part of any measurement in which precision is important.

**Measurement techniques.** The comparison of quantities as to equality, the counting of units and the determination of the coincidence of events—all involved in physical measurement—may be done by an observer (usually using his visual, aural or tac-

tile faculties) or by instruments which display or record the results or apply them to automatic computation or control. See **INSTRUMENTATION**.

**Direct measurement** involves comparison with a standard (such as a meter bar) or measurement by a calibrated instrument (such as a voltmeter). **Indirect measurements** are those derived from measurements of related quantities, for example the mass of the electron can be derived from measurements on the bending of the electron path in a magnetic field and separate measurements of its charge. **Absolute measurements** are those derived from measurements of the primary quantities involved as in determination of acceleration from length and time intervals rather than from reaction force.

Once a standard of any physical quantity is established (by definition or absolute measurement) any instrument of known stability calibrated by measuring the standard or multiples or divisions thereof may be used as a standard instrument to calibrate other instruments by comparison of readings when measuring constant or repeatable values of the quantity.

Space permits mention of only a few special techniques devised to reduce uncertainties and errors in measurement.

1 In weighing on a balance known weights are substituted for unknown weights previously balanced by counterweights so that such uncertainties as knife edge placement and beam lengths do not affect the comparison.

2 The effect of a quantity to be measured may be nearly offset by a similar known and fixed quantity and the difference measured by an instrument of lesser range and of correspondingly higher precision.

3 If the standard offsetting quantity can be divided into sufficiently small or continuously variable fractions it can be adjusted for equality to within the smallest limits detectable. This is the so-called null or balancing method of measurement.

4 A number of small quantities of the same kind may be combined so that the cumulative magnitude is appropriate for measurement with a suitable method.

5 The measurand may be time modulated to permit better discrimination between the measured and extraneous effects on the measuring instrument.

6 The undesired effects of environmental factors such as temperature and external magnetic fields may be compensated for in the instrument system by elements which are responsive to the disturbing factor and interact with the measuring or indicating means to offset such effect.

7 A series of observations of a particular measurand permits statistical determination of an average and lead to increased precision, also an estimate of the probable error of observation (not including systematic error) can be obtained.

8 Based on careful design of experiments observations may be made in a wide area

models with multistage: the factor  
in order as possible sources of error permitting  
statistical estimation of the magnitude of the ar  
proposed appropriate creation for them [waw]

## Bibliography See INSTRUMENTATION

## Physical science

The fields of inquiry to which the general ideas generated in science may be progressively applied are broadly divided into natural science and natural science. The latter is further subdivided into biology, physics, and chemistry. Physical science is generally considered to include astronomy, chemistry, geology, meteorology, and physics. The social sciences are biology, sociology, psychology, chemistry, physics, physical chemistry, and geophysics. The relationship between the physical and biological sciences is seen in both biophysics and biogeochemistry. The biological sciences are geology, paleontology, and botany. The social sciences are sociology, psychology, and anthropology. The relationship between the physical and biological sciences is seen in both biophysics and biogeochemistry. The biological sciences are geology, paleontology, and botany. The social sciences are sociology, psychology, and anthropology.

Chemistry and physics differ from meteorology and geology in that they are concerned with properties of matter and energy instead of dealing with the rich, plentiful details of Earth as farmers do. Physics enters the part of matter which we find

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 alt C -fert izat on h p od ed som f  
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 h li ge by e t t with d ntur u m nd  
 Science J H H

## Physics

Th g al bje tte f phy: f rme ly e lled  
at l phl phy w t und t nd th t ut e  
f the t l wold und epla ar rsl phe om  
l tm a p l d ces br ke  
w y fr m phy t f m t om a field f n  
tg l f th p oce phy r ed t  
rg al m f r g t el w th o e spect  
r tu wh h ld b t ood n a fu da  
me t l way: term f f m nt ry p n ple nd  
w

Basic parts Th m t b i of phy c a  
n h n and fid ther ry Mech n tned  
with m t n f part les bod es nde th c  
t f g f ces Th ph i of field i n  
ed with gn n t d p p r i e of  
g a i al i t m gn t ul d ther  
f field T k i g ther m ba c g f ld  
thro y i i i f m t f ndam i l pp h  
t nd i nd g i n t al ph m w b ch  
se ff Th ult m a m i nde i nd  
all at i ph n m n in the terms S F ield  
THEORY CLAS c l M CH ic Q ANTUM F ield

The older classical divisions of physics were based on certain general classes of natural phenomena to which the methods of physics had been found particularly applicable. The conventional divisions of classical mechanics with branches in celestial mechanics, hydrodynamics and ballistics, heat and thermodynamics, kinetic theory of gases and statistical mechanics, optics, acoustics and electricity and electromagnetism. The divisions are all still current but in present usage many of them tend more and more to designate branches of applied physics or technology and less and less in present divisions in physics itself.

**Branches of modern physics** The divisions or branches of modern physics are made in accordance with particular types of structures in nature with which each branch is concerned. Thus elementary particle — ultra high energy physics — is the most recent branch and is concerned with understanding the properties and behaviour of elementary particles — which are more particularly the highly unstable particles — mesons, hyperons and antiparticles — which are produced in collisions of high energies above about 150 000 000 electron volts. The next branch in the classification is nuclear physics which is concerned with a collection of atoms and properties of emitting the nuclei of atoms that sit together and energy rates relative to between nuclei including catalytic processes and radioactivity and also phenomena such as the interaction of high speed nuclear particles with matter. Atomic physics is concerned with the structure and properties of atoms as determined by the electrons outside the nuclei. The rates of motion of the electrons in orbiting the nucleus at a very low level of momentum, proportion and magnetic moment and the absorption and emission of additional energy and

Continuing with this classification, the complexity there is molecular physics which is concerned with the interaction of molecules at the atomic level. It includes chemical bonding, heat and rotation, spectra, molecular and thermal properties of solids, liquid physics, phase changes and thermodynamic properties of highly ionized atoms forming plasmas, nuclear and leptonic fields, ionospheric

I th m l s f i a t o c u l d a l s o b e c l u d e d  
 i p h y w h i c h d e a l s w i t h t h a p p l i c a t i o n f  
 p h y c i m t h o d s a d t y p f p l a a t i o n t o b o  
 l o g i s t m d t r u c t u r e s

Oth m re p e c i a l i z e d c l a s s i f i c a t i o n m y b e  
 m d a c d e e w i t h p a r t i c u l r i a t u m n i s o r  
 t e l u g h s y d f i c t i o n e u t o n d i f f r a c  
 u m a s p e t m t r y n f r e d p r p y n d  
 m l o g y T h e p e a s f i e l d o f l o w t m p r a n d  
 g h y h a r t d n t a l y b y p c i l n e r  
 m i r l d n t l e p d t n a d m a u e m e n t  
 o f l w t m p t e n t h r g f l i q u i d h l u m  
 b t a l b y t h e p h n m a s o f p r e d c t t y a d  
 p e f i d t y w h i h o c c l v p r e d c t t y a d

range. Other fields such as astrophysics and geophysics are concerned with aspects of other sciences to which physics is applicable.

Mathematical physics is the study of physical phenomena by means of mathematics and includes the more mathematical parts of all branches of physics as well as most of the content of statistical mechanics, quantum mechanics, relativity, and field theory. A distinction is often made between mathematical physics and theoretical physics, in which the latter although still entirely mathematical in form is thought of as being more closely related to experimental physics. Neither mathematical nor theoretical physics can really be separated from experimental physics, since a complete understanding of nature can only be obtained by the application of both theory and experiment.

**Aim of physics.** In every area physics is characterized not so much by its subject matter content as by the precision and depth of understanding which it seeks. The aim of physics is the construction of a unified theoretical scheme in mathematical terms, whose structure and behavior duplicates that of the whole natural world in the most comprehensive manner possible. Where other sciences are content to describe and relate phenomena in terms of restricted concepts peculiar to their own discipline, physics always seeks to understand the same phenomena as a special manifestation of the underlying uniform structure of nature as a whole. In line with this objective, physics is characterized by accurate instrumentation, precision of measurement, and the expression of its results in mathematical terms.

For the major areas of physics and for additional listings of articles in physics see ACOUSTICS, ASTROPHYSICS, ATOMIC PHYSICS, BIOPHYSICS, ELECTRICITY, ELECTROMAGNETISM, HEAT, LOW TEMPERATURE PHYSICS, MECHANICS, CLASSICAL MOLECULAR PHYSICS, NUCLEAR PHYSICS, OPTICS, SOLID-STATE PHYSICS, THEORETICAL PHYSICS.

[WCP]

## Physiological acoustics

A term used to refer to the physiology involved in the process of speaking and hearing. Physiological acoustics includes the action of the larynx, glottis, throat, mouth, tongue, and teeth in the process of speaking. It includes the action of the eardrum, the small bones of the middle ear, the inner ear, conduction of the oval window, cochlea, basilar membrane, and round window, and also the action of the nerves carrying the acoustic stimulation to the brain in the process of hearing. A study of the effect of various kinds of sounds upon all the physiological processes in the body is also included in this field. The term physiological acoustics and psychoacoustics are sometimes used interchangeably. Technically, however, only the topics mentioned here fall under the domain of physiological acoustics. See HEARING, SPEECH, see also PSYCHOACOUSTICS. [HFL]

## Physiological action spectra

An action spectrum is a representation of the comparative effects of different wavelengths of light on living systems or on the components of living system. A knowledge of the effects of different wavelengths on living systems helps lead to an understanding of the detailed mechanisms of energy transfer and utilization and to a determination of the essential compounds involved in the action of living system. The work of action spectroscopy is founded on the firm bases that energy must be absorbed before it is utilized and that each chemical compound has a characteristic absorption spectrum. Therefore the shape of the action spectrum may lead to the identification of the absorbing molecule. Action spectroscopy has been used extensively to study three classes of compound: porphyrins containing proteins, nucleic acid polymer, and plant pigment. See ABSORPTION (ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION).

**Beneficial effects of light.** Proteins which contain porphyrin prosthetic group, such as hemoglobin and cytochrome, play an important part in the transport of oxygen and in the oxidation-reduction systems of cells. Such prosthetic group has a high affinity for carbon monoxide (CO) and therefore the respiration of living system is inhibited by carbon monoxide. Light can remove the carbon monoxide inhibition by causing the dissociation of the porphyrin-CO complex. The extensive work of O. H. Warburg and his collaborators on the action spectra for the removal of the carbon monoxide inhibition respiration led to the identification of the respiratory enzyme, a porphyrin-containing protein. The fact that light absorbed not only in the porphyrin ring but also in the protein can cause the dissociation of CO indicates that energy may be transferred at distances of about 30 angstrom units (Å). See CYTOCHROME, HEMOGLOBIN, PORPHYRIN.

**Destructive effects of light.** The beneficial effect of light mentioned above is to be contrasted with the destructive effect of light in the ultra violet spectral region. This light can destroy the enzymatic activity of protein and can kill bacteria and viruses. Action spectra for the killing and the production of mutants in yeast shown in the accompanying figure indicate that the most effective wavelengths are in the neighborhood of 600 Å. The shape of the action spectrum is very similar to the absorption spectrum of nucleic acid, which indicates that nucleic acid polymer is an essential component in the duplication of living system. Some of the effect of ultra violet light on deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) are referred when the system is illuminated by intense visible light. Such reaction is known as photoreactivation or photoreactivation. See BACTERIA, NUCLEIC ACID, PROTEIN, ULTRAVIOLET RADIATION (BIOLOGY).

**Photosynthesis.** Because it is the most important source of energy, it is not surprising that



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**ULTRAVIOLET RADIATION (BIOLOGY)**  
**Photosynthesis.** The rate of the most important carbon fixation is not surprising that

alk d g e It hydr g n on e trat n i  
p t e l l y n a r i b l e b e n g m i t i e d l a r g e l y b y  
b u f f e s s y s t e m o f b i c a b n a t a n d c a l m e a d  
l i t h a f u r n h e d t h e r f r e a p t u m l n n m e n t  
f o r t h a p p e f l u g u m

The c a n t i t s f R u d l f H b r l g t h e  
l e d n G r m a n h o l a r t h f i e l d n d W i l l a m  
M a d d k B a y l b t k n w n E n g l h w a t e r m a y  
m e t o n e d F o l l o w g i n t h e B e n r d t r a d i t i o n  
b e i n 1945 d l r d t h t i n o t o l v p  
l e b t o f i m p r t a e t a n c h o r p h y l g y n  
e p e n p h a l f e m t r y t h a n w a d o n e p e v i  
u l y A m i l r e m p h a s e u m s t o f t h e  
t h e r p b l i d w l i n w l h m a y b e f o u n d o f  
m f l d f u o m o n d o m i t p r e u r e  
l l o d l s a t e w t e a d l e c t r i t y e s h y d g n  
c n t i n r d a t o a n d e t i n e n z y m  
i n a d t h e e f f e t s o f t m p e a t u r e n a d d t o  
o t t m e n t o f t h e a t r e o f p o p l m t h e p r  
n a b i l i t y f m e m b n n t i t n e s t i n d  
p t i o s p a t i n a n d m e t a b o l i s m e t i o  
t l h b t m u s c l e t r a t i o n a n d n r e  
n d c t I d d t h e e s e g m t f p h y  
l g e l t d v w h c h m a y t b e c d e r d t h e  
b d p o t o f g e n a l p h y l g y T h c n i s a  
m e t h o d o f a p p o a h a d a n a t m d o f m d a t h e  
t h n t r e a t m n t f a p p r i u l a t o p i r a p l  
f i e l d S O R E G U L A T O R Y M E C H A N I S M S

Areas of general physiology Altho gh g n e al  
p h y o l g y i s a m e t h o d o f p h y l g y a n d  
c h t h h t l e v e l n l n s t i g r i t h i k  
n g c e r n i n g t h w h l g a m l g e a g m  
m t f i t i t u e h b n d t e d t i u d e o f  
c e l l p e r m i a b i l i t y p r o t e i n s f i t h t  
p l a m a m m b n F a m l i m t i a l f s c h  
t d e a e l p l a t e l l t h e e g g l i f i n  
t e b a t e n d r e b a t d b d r p u l e  
B y a v r t i s m t h d t h p n t i o n f m a n y  
u b t e h b n s t d e d N m f a t e r c a n  
n t f t h l r v d p e t t M l u l f  
m u b t e f i s t a n t w i t x y g s  
b o n d d e a d u e a n t a d l a t h c e l l  
l i t h e a m l l d a d l y m a k e t i  
w y t h g h m a l l g r e t h e m e m b r I  
m y e t h a b i l i t y f a n n l r t h t o p n  
t a t t l a t p r i s l i d t t h l p d o l u b i l  
t y f i t m t l E O t n t e d i 1899  
I t h a e f i l e t r l t h e l t i a l h r g o n  
t h e w a l l f i t h m m b a p o e s e e m s t o d e t  
m t h p m W h n t h e m m b n h a r g a  
l t r g t s i l l y t h e a c p t e l y  
h g d t n p e r t r m h m r e a d l y t h n  
d n g t l y h g d n o W h e t h m m b a  
h a g l c t p t e s t r t b t e r e d  
f l o o d r p l o m t i t m s t r e d l y  
c n f n e i g n a p f e c i a l l y l d d  
l i l t p s g l t l y d f f i n l t a d t h  
l e r t l t n o f l i g m e m b l a  
c f h g h i n t h w a l t h l r g e r r g  
m l e c l e s h s f t o p o t e n a n t m e  
l n g l l u h l i g h t h r e n t t i  
b u l d g t t h e f i t y e d d a m n d  
b l e t d H w e r r i n p a l t

at i n a s i n t h e c e l l o f t h e l i v e r t h e r e i s e i d e n c e  
t h t m o l e c u l e o f t h e p l a m a p r o t e i n s c a n e n t e r  
a n d l e a w i t h r e l a t i v e c a m S e e C R I L ( b i o l o g i  
C A L )

Models At an earlier tim w h n m u h l e s w a  
k n o w n a b t c e l l s t r u t u r e a n d f u n c t i n t h e r w a  
a t t n g t n d n c y a m o n g g e n e r a l p h y l g i t t  
e e k a d i n t h e r t h i n k i n g b y t h e c n t r u t i n o f  
m o d e l s l o g n c o n n l i n g g a n i c s t e m  
m v b b u i l t i m p a t e m e m a t a c t i v a l t h o u g h  
t h e y a e n r l l e t r e p r o d c a l l f u s a p t  
T h e r o t r u c t i n m p l a s z t h e d e s i g n o f n e l i  
g a t o s i t h i s f i e l d t o d e a l w i t h u n i e r a p h e n m  
e n a A s s u m a r y d e s c r i p t i o n o f m a n y f t h e m o d  
e l w a s g e n e r a t e d b y T C B r n e i n 1937 T h e v i n  
l u d e l T r a u l e m o d e l o f t h e c e l l c n e s s e d i n  
1867 w h c h w a f r m e d l y l e t t i n g d r o p o f g e l a t i n  
f a l l i n t 5 c m t a n i c a c d w h i c h t h e f r m  
i s n f a p c i p i t a s s n m e m b r a n e a r n d t h e g e l  
t T h e a r t i f i c i a l c e l l m m b r a n e s a r e s f f e n t l y  
d n t p e m t t h e p e r m e a b i l i t y o f g l u c l i g l u  
c e i s a d d e d t h e g l a t i n l e f r e t h e c e l l a r e  
f r m e d a t l a t e r c a e t h m t w e l l a a o f w  
m o u m o e m e n t f w a t e r i t t h e m W N H a r v e y  
i n 1912 f r m e d a r t i f i c i a l c e l l l y a d d i n g e g g w h i t  
t w a t e r t h e n s h k i n g w h c h l f r m i n t l p o  
t e c o t e d c h l o r o f r m d r o p l e t a p p e a r e d I f l e c t  
t h n i s a d d e d t o t h e h i r f r m a d t h e c h l o o f r m  
d r p l e t a r e a l l w e d t e a p o t e s i w a t e r p r o t e i n  
c r e d l e c t h n c e l l r e m a i n w h i c h r e m b l a  
u h u n e g s i m n y p o p e t e s  
F r a u b i l o p o l i e f r t h e i n t r o d u c t i o n o f  
a m o d e l o f t h e c e l l m m b n e w h i c h h a s b e e n  
w i d e l y m p l y e d i p h y c o e m i c a l t u d e s W h n  
a o l a t n o f p o t i u m f r r y a n i d e c o m e s i n t  
c t c t w i t h o e o f p p r u l i t a m m b r a n e o f  
p p e f r r o j a n i d e s f o r m e d w h h m a y b e s u p  
p o r t e d A p p r a p r e c l c u p l e r m i t t h e  
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m e m b r a n e c l y a p p r x i m t t h e i d e l e m p i e r  
m e a b l m e m b r n e b c h i p e m e a b l e t o w a t e r  
b t t o n o a b s t a n c e d i s s o l e d n t h w a t e r L y n g  
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l u e l y p m e a b l e  
S c h m o d e l e x p m t h a e a r t a n p e d a g o g  
i a l a l u e a n d m y e v n d i n t h e p l n n i g o f  
p h o l o g i a l x p r m n t s B u t i s t h e v t l a c t i  
t y w h h u g g e r i s t h e m o d e l a d t h e e v e e  
T h e m e t a g a t s h l d f o u h a t t n t n u p o n  
t h l n g c l l o g n m t w h h h i p h y s c a l  
a n d h e m c a l e x p r i m t l m t h d s h u l d b e  
d e l y a p p l i e d  
U s f t h l t m i c p I n t h l a t d e c  
d a g e t e x p a s o f b o l g i a l k n o w l d g h a s  
r e d t h u g h t h w d e p e a d u e o f t h e c e l l  
i m e c p e w h h p r v d e a e a l t h o f n e w  
l i m t n o e r n i n g t h e u l t r a c t u r e f c e l l  
a d t s T h f i n a n t m o y o f H u l a r n l  
o u h t h e m t c h o n d r a a d t h G l g a p  
p a t a s b g r e v l e d A s y s t m o f f l u i d f i l l e d  
t b e k o w a t h e d p l a s m c r t c l m h a

ment of electrical science in the eighteenth century Alessandro Volta called his voltaic pile an artificial *Torpedo*. See ELECTRIC ORGAN (BIOLOGY).

Physiological observations on living cells have led to other important advances in physical science. In 1827 Robert Brown reported on the general existence of active molecules in organic and inorganic bodies. In examining the ovules and pollen grains of various plants under his microscope he observed small particles within them to be in rapid oscillatory motion. A systematic search revealed the same phenomenon in the most diverse materials. In his honor it came to be known as

Brownian movement. It was later recognized as due to the thermal agitation of molecules and ions in the cytoplasm and in other fluids. Their own movement is invisible but their continual bombardment of particles suspended in them causes the visible oscillations. This thermal activity is basically responsible for the diffusion of material along their concentration gradient in solid liquids and gases.

There are several further examples of physiological experiments leading to physical discoveries. In 1748 J. Nöller discovered osmosis by observing that a pig's bladder filled with alcohol and dipped into water increases in volume as water moves into it. The experiments of H. De Vries beginning in 1884 showed that if a sugar solution of a certain molar concentration just produces plasmolysis of plant cells the same effect can be produced by a lower concentration of sodium chloride or of other salts. J. Van't Hoff and S. Arrhenius shortly used this data to support their theory of electrolytic dissociation, arguing that each salt molecule upon solution splits into ions, both of which contribute to the osmotic pressure, whereas the sugar molecules remain undissociated.

Thus general physiology is more than a study of the functional activities of plants and animals. Broadly conceived it is a search for phenomena which are universal, occurring in both the living and the nonliving worlds, to the end that a more fundamental understanding of vital activities can be attained. See ELECTROPHYSIOLOGY (HEART).

**Development of general physiology.** General physiology was first established as a distinct discipline by the devoted labors of the great French physiologist Claude Bernard (1813-1878) who introduced the term. In a series of brilliant investigations he added greatly to the subject matter of the science. His experimental studies included the mechanism of glandular secretion (particularly in the pancreas), animal glycogenesis, vasodilator and vasoconstrictor nerves, animal heat, anesthetics, poisons (especially curare and carbon monoxide), and a wide array of other subjects.

In 1865 Bernard wrote that general physiology is the basic biological science toward which all others converge. Its problem is to determine the elementary condition of vital phenomena. Thinking more specifically about methodology, he argued that the properties of living matter can be learned

only through their relation to the properties of organic matter; it follows that the biological sciences must have as their necessary foundation the physico-chemical sciences from which they borrow their means of analysis and their methods of investigation.

Bernard's final review and summary was published in 1878. In it he developed his conception of an internal environment in the higher organism whose composition and physical state are regulated particularly by central nervous reflex action; that their cells live in a nearly constant fluid medium distributed through their blood, lymph, and intercellular fluids. His famous dictum *La fixité du milieu intérieur est la condition de la vie libre indépendante* is usually translated "the constancy of the internal environment is the condition of the free life" but this rendering, to a certain extent, omits the original force by omitting "independent."

At a later time Walter Cannon introduced the term *homeostasis* to describe the regulation and adjustment of vital functions so that a steady state exists not only in the blood and tissue fluid but in other bodily mechanisms (see HOMEOSTASIS). J. Barcroft has more recently argued that the free life must be thought of as a free mental life, since it is the cells of the nervous system which above those of all other tissues require constancy in their milieu.

Such conceptions must properly be considered as the highest level in general physiological thinking. They are broad generalizations which permit better interpretation of whole series of vital phenomena in many organisms. It is unwise to accept any definition of general physiology which makes it synonymous with cell physiology as M. Verwoerd has done. The study of individual cells is an important part of its field, but integrative thinking about the whole organism, its even higher responsibility. Research and theory must proceed at all levels.

One further example of high level thinking in general physiology may be considered. Lawrence J. Henderson in 1913 wrote persuasively concerning the fitness of the environment. He argued that the physical and chemical characteristics of the inorganic world are peculiarly adapted to sustain life and possibly caused its appearance in the first place. His argument may be briefly summarized as follows:

Enormous quantities of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen, partly in the form of water and carbonic acid, are apparently incombustible constituents of the atmospheres and crusts of the larger planet. The known compounds of carbon and hydrogen and of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen far surpass in number the compounds of any other elements. The elements therefore are uniquely fitted to be the stuff of which life is formed and of the environment in which it exists. Water has a high specific heat. Therefore in the ocean depths there are only minor fluctuations of temperature. Ocean water carries with it everywhere a constant mixture of

late the flagellist th algae Thy h e one  
flagellum (P d mon ) two (Chlamydomo as)  
to (Ca tr a) (Fig 1) right (P lybleph  
d ) Pl ral fl ll a e lly qu l The gr up  
la g d ab ut ne f u th f the appr x  
m t ly 100 ge a f rm palmell id r de dr id col  
m (T i po Chlo ng m) wuh flagella  
nly in rep od cu e cell C ll w ll a e of cellu  
l e a d o l t n th y a e th l Chr mai ph e om  
tan the me hlo ophyll s h g h r pla is Pyr  
n da h ve the u ll form comm ly f d w th  
r h th e e r m te al

Un ll l p p e p e d o m n a t e but t leat 16  
g n r a f m e l n s The a e i r e g i r h e a r  
f i t r p h r e l l f o g l b to s h l l w  
p h r f t n l m m i d a m e t e I t m e l g n u s  
p i p h y n t a i n t h u n d o f b f l g e l l a t e z o o i d s  
S o m z o o d a r e g n d a t h a t o m n e w o f i e s  
a l l y b y a c o m p l e t d m l p l e d i v i o n l o g  
a m y t h p d u c t l i k e g m e t e w h c h f u e s i  
e m n i P h y t m a d d a b i l l e x g l b a t o i s  
m o n o e i o d c i n g l r g e e g g f r m c r i s

o o d s a d p c k t o f m a l l p r m f r m t h r  
E g l b r a t e d i n t o t h e h o l l w p h e r e a e f r i  
l e d b y p r m T h i k r o g h w a l l v e l p h f e  
t l z d w h h e e t l l y g d u e w c l n e  
T h u f g l b t o l l u t a t s e u a l e p r d e n  
m p l e b l e t h t i h g h e a m s l V e t p h y  
t o m o a d s a e f e h w t e r i h b i t a n t s o m e a r e t e r  
m t l m m s i n S e P H Y T O M A S T I C O P H O R A  
R E P R O D U C T I O N A V I S I A L [J B L]

# Piciformes

A r d f b i d n t i n g x f m l w h h  
h n r o m n a p e l s a r r a n g e m e t f t h e  
t d o f t h t d o t h e r n i m l h a s  
t A l l m l t i h e a d t h y o u g l r d s  
p d a l u l y l g p d n t h m t The  
f r g t f m l v i t h e P i d a t h w o d p k e  
l d i d s d t i b u t n e x e p t f o r M d g a s r  
A t l a n d m t f O a W d p k r b w  
m n d p t m d f i a n e l a t d t o t h e l m b  
m n d f e d g h b u s t a b l t h e r e p t o l l y  
f g t g u d h y d m l m T h r f m l  
a l l e d t o t h N e t p l i g n t h e j c a  
m a (C l b l d e) p f f i b r d (B u e d a) d  
t a (R m p h i d) T h b b e t s (C a p u r)  
d l p t p l w h s t h b n y g d  
d l t d i f i n d t h A f r n a n d l  
d n g T h h n y g d s n i d f o t h  
h b t f l d g m n d o t h n m l e b e  
i m u r o o g a i m t h d g t i t p e  
m t t h b d i d g t b w x H o e g d e a e  
p r i T h l y e g g s t h e l e t s f s h  
b d a b b e t w o o d p k a d t l n g S e  
A i z e s [K C R]

# Pickereel

A m p p l d m w h t i t g a b l y t o f i f  
t h p f f i h t h g E A n t h e  
m m l y e d n m l r t h e e p i p k e T h  
t h p e c i t h m l y m k e l l n g E x  
m q s y A l l b l n g t h f m l y E o c i d a



(1)



(2)

(1) Th n th m p k E o f l g h t r d f i  
(2) Th m k l l u g E m q o p y f e g h t 8 f t  
V m E l p l m e F i d b k o f N i l H t o r y  
M G o w H l 1949)

The p k e a r e l l a r c t i c i n t h e i r d i t r i b u t i n  
O n e f r e E s x e c h i o c c u r s o n l i n S i b e r i  
T h e n o r t h e r n p i k e E t i u s f n d i n t h n t h e r n  
p r t o f N o r t h A m e r c a a n d i n E u r a s i s o n e f  
t h e f i n e t p o r t f i s h t r i k i n g w i t h f e r o c i t y a n d  
f i g h t i n g w i t h d e t e r m i n a t o n w h e n h o o k d l i f r e  
q u e n t l y w e i g h s 15 l b o r m r L a k e a l l t h e E s o x  
l a g e o g h t t i t i s a x c e l l e n t f o o d f i s h  
T h e r e i s a u b t n t a l c o m m e r c i a l f i s h e r y f o t h i  
p e e p r i m a l y i n t h e C a d a l a k e

T h e m u l l u g e s p m a l y a f f h f t h e G r e a t  
L a k d r n g e y t e m T h e r i s s u b p e a s  
t h e O h o R i r s y t m S t y l b m k i e s a r e t a k e n  
a l m o t e y y e a r a n d 40-lb f i s h a r e s a r l y c o m  
m o n T h i s i t h e a c k n w l e d g e d k i n g o f A m e r i c n  
f e h w a t e p r t f i s h e r

T h e t a p k e l E s o x n g e s e s t e r n  
p e e s f i l o m m i n w e d y w a t e r f r m M a i n  
t o F l d a l t a l o c c u r s i n t h e a s t r n p a r t o f t h  
G r e t L a k s y t e m a n d n r t h w d u p t h M  
p p R e e t V s o r i T h i s i s m a l l e r f i s h  
t h a t h o t h n p k e s t h n g a l e n g t h o f o n l y  
2 f t T h b n d e d p k e r l E m e c a n s  
e a t f t h A l l g h e n e s i t s e l d m v e r 2 f t i n  
l e n g t h T h m a l l e t f l l t h e m d p i c k e r e l  
E t r m l a t u l d m s a h i n g l f t i n l n g t h  
n d m m n s t h e M s u p p i O h m d G r e t  
L a k s y t e m

A l l p k e a v a c u p d a t r s m c o g n i z e d b y  
t h e d k b l l h t d e c y l d r i c a l b d a n d t h e  
m l l p t i r l y e t d r a l a n d a l f i n s S  
C L U P E I F O R M E S [J D B]

# Picrate

O n f t w t y p e f w r p n d w h c h a r e d e i e d  
f i m m r c d 46 t t r p h e o l T h e l y d o n  
g n t h e —O H g r o u p f t h p h n o l s w f f i l y  
l a b i l t a a n a d t y f m s i t s w t h i o r  
g n e b a t h e u a l m a n (f o e a m p l e  
o d m p t)

T h n d l f p i s g r p o f m l c u  
l r m p l e s f r m e d w h e n p e r c a d n d a r o  
m t o m p u d s h a s a p h t l n a l l w e d  
i e t A l t h g h t h e a t u f t h e o m p l e  
n t e t r l y u d e t d t h e y a u f u l t h  
d n t i f o f r m t m p n d h c u t h



been discovered. It is now known that many living membranes consist of two molecular sheets whose thickness can be measured. The pores imagined by general physiologists have now been shown to exist. The molecular architecture of nerve and muscle cells has been partially explored. The intricate ultrastructure of the neuromuscular junction has been revealed. See NEUROPHYSIOLOGY.

At the cellular and subcellular levels, general physiology is thus presented with new opportunities and a great challenge. Older techniques are inadequate to study structures which can be seen only in ultrathin sections and which in the course of their preparation for electromicroscopy become completely dry. New approaches to basic problems must be developed combining physical, chemical, and histological techniques in a concerted effort to obtain still deeper insights into vital mechanisms. See ANIMAL GROWTH, CIRCULATION, EXCRETION, METABOLISM. [WRA]

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## Phytomastigophorea

A class of the subphylum Flagellata also known as the Phytomastigina. They are the plant flagellates which contain chlorophyll and other pigment, but also include colorless forms. Grass green is the usually observed color, primarily because the green flagellates are the largest. Those containing an excess of yellow pigments generally are smaller in size and fewer species have unusual colors such as blue or red. Holophytic, saprophytic, and holozoic modes of nutrition occur and specific chemical components may be demanded by individual species within the group.

Encystment is frequent among phytoflagellates, cyst composition being one method of determining relationships for some colorless species. Reproduction may occur within the cyst or while the organism is active. Gamete formation is largely restricted to Phytomonadina, but life cycles may include an alternation of flagellate with palmella or with amoeboid generations. The Phytomastigophorea include six groups usually considered to be orders. These are the Chrysomonadida, Cryptomonadida, Phytomonadida, Euglenida, Chloromonadida, and Dinoflagellida. See articles on these groups. See also MASTIGOPHOREA. [JHL]

## Phytomonadida

An order of the class Phytomastigophorea. The protozoans also known as the Phytomonadina are grass green, but a few are colorless (*Polytoma*). Individual cells may be as small as 8  $\mu$ . They closely

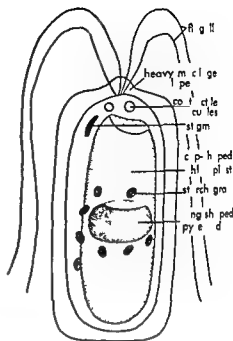


Fig 1. Cross-section of a Phytomonadida cell.

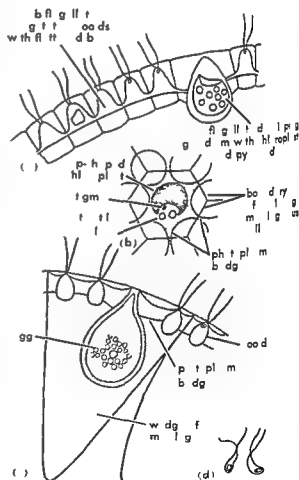
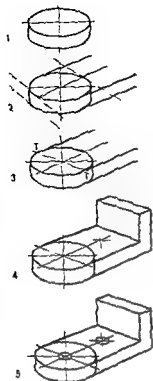


Fig 3. (a) V. f. gl. bat. S. to. l. w. (b) V. gl. bat. S. f. e. v. w. f. a. gl. d. (c) V. f. gl. bat. S. t. l. w. Th. z. o. d. p. a. h. p. d. d. t. ch. d. by. th. ad. k. p. topl. m. t. ad. t. ch. oth. Th. m. cl. ag. d. w. way. f. om. th. th. k. te. bo. d. ry. b. t. al. ll. a. po. at. d. to. a. d. p. w. dg. f. m. l. g. (d) V. a. Spe. m. l. g. d. b. t. 8. t. m. by. c. mp. with. ( )



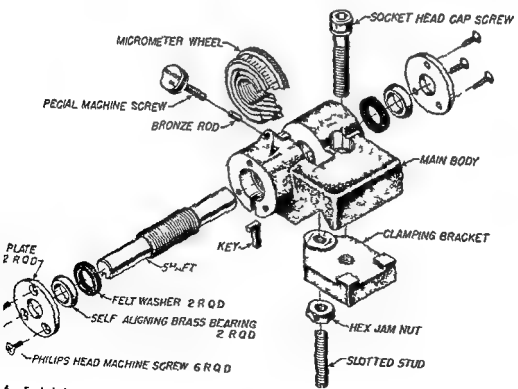
to convey ideas to their assistants and clients. In making a pictorial drawing it is important to select the viewing direction that shows the object and its details to the best advantage. The resultant drawing is orthographic if the viewing rays are considered as parallel to perspective if they are considered as meeting at the eye of the observer. Making perspective drawings with instruments is time-consuming and requires considerable knowledge and skill.

Several types of isometric pictorial views can be sketched or drawn with instruments (Fig. 1). The dimetric and trimetric drawing provide quite satisfactory views of the object while the isometric view is not quite so satisfactory because of the distortion created by the high viewing angle. However, isometric drawings are relatively easy to make with drawing instruments. They are particularly useful for showing piping layouts (Fig. 2).

Cabinet and other oblique drawings while not true orthographic views offer a convenient method for drawing circles and other curves in the true shape (Fig. 3).

An effective pictorial sketch of an object can be made if proper attention is given to viewing direction, proportions, orientation of ellipses and location of tangent points (Fig. 4). An essential feature in pictorial drawing is the proper orientation of the major (long) axis of ellipses representing circles. The minor axis of an ellipse should be

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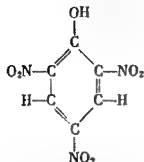


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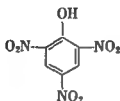
complexes are solids with characteristic melting points. These complexes are usually highly colored. See **PICRIC ACID** [F E W R]

## Picric acid

A phenol in which nitro (NO<sub>2</sub>) groups are present in the 2, 4 and 6 positions on the ring of carbon atoms. It approaches the mineral acids in acid

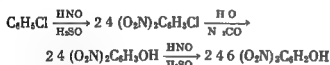


Graphic formula

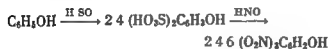


Simplified formula

strength (pK = 0.80). It is produced (1) by nitration of chlorobenzene to the dinitro derivative, hydrolysis of the latter followed by another nitration



or (2) by sulfonation of phenol followed by nitration



It has been used in treatment of burns as an explosive and as a yellow dye. See **NITROBENZENE**, **PHENOL** [R B C]

## Picrite

The term picrite has been used with several different meanings. It is generally considered to include certain medium to fine-grained igneous rocks composed chiefly of olivine with smaller amounts of pyroxene, hornblende, and plagioclase feldspar (labradorite).

The feldspar content is slightly higher than that of peridotite and lower than that of gabbro. Certain analcrite-bearing types associated with teschenite have also been included under the term picrite. A characteristic feature is the poikilitic texture in which large pyroxene or hornblende crystals enclose numerous small grains of olivine.

Picrite is rare and is found in small intrusions (sills and dikes). It may also occur in the lower portions of basaltic lava flows where olivine and pyroxene crystals have accumulated under the influence of gravity. See **GABBRO**, **IGNEOUS ROCKS**, **PERIDOTITE** [C A C A]

## Pictorial drawing

A pictorial drawing shows a view of an object (actual or imagined) as it would be seen by an observer who looks at the object either in a chosen

direction or from a selected point of view. One view usually suffices to give the reader a clear picture of the shape and details of the object. Pictorial sketches are often more readily made and more clearly understood than are front, top, and side views of an object (see **DESCRIPTIVE GEOMETRY**, **ENGINEERING DRAWING**). Pictorial drawing, either sketched freehand or made with drawing instruments, are frequently used by engineers and architects.

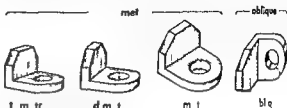


Fig. 1 Four different forms of pictorial drawing. (From T. E. French and C. J. Vreeland, *Graphic Systems*, McGraw-Hill, 1958).

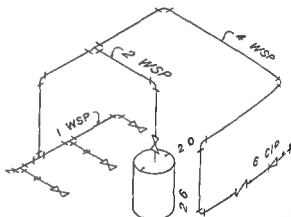


Fig. 2 Isometric pictorial drawing.

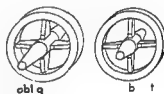


Fig. 3 Oblique and cabinet drawings. (From T. E. French and C. J. Vreeland, *Graphic Systems*, McGraw-Hill, 1958).

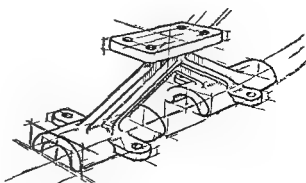
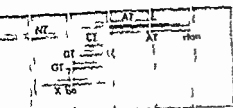


Fig. 4 A perspective drawing. (From T. E. French and C. J. Vreeland, *Graphic Systems*, McGraw-Hill, 1958).



01 01 1 10 100 1000  
freq cyl macyt

3 F n cy g l o crystal

El t des m y be ppl d d cly t the ur  
e f the c y t a l t h y m a y b n t e d e t r  
a l l t h p c m t y t o t h q u a n t z e l m e n t  
t y t a l w t h l e c t r o d n t h s u r f a c e  
e t y m u n d b y m e s o f w t h i h m y  
l p r o d e t h e e t i t t h l e t r d C n  
r f y t i m a y b h e m t c l l y e r l e d f  
t e t n f m t m p h e i c e f f e c t a d m e  
y l f a e m n t d n a u t e l m e l p t o m  
e Q n d e d e a g d f t E x m p l s i m d  
n a m m n t e d q a r t c y t l s a h o w n  
F g l v u m m o n t d r y t a l o t a p b l e  
f h n d l g m h p o w (s a l l y l e t h a l r 2  
m l l w t t m m m d p a t n) T h (o r  
l d c r y t l f p o w e c i l l a t r a e s w a l l  
m t e d i e r t g s h n t g h  
l i m

The c r y t l r t u t h e f a g a p  
p l t l l y l t t d b t h e f q e n s t  
h h t h y l m t o p t a n d t h t e m p a  
t r e a g w h h t h r y t l m u t w r k A  
p l t o f t y p l f q u v u m p a t u  
r f l d f e r y t a l u t h w s n  
F i g 2 A h t f f q e c y n g e s e r d b y  
d l v u d t l t h w n F g 3

A p p l i c a t i o n s Q a r t z i t e n t r m d  
f t b l g t h f i s i l l s The  
d e g f t b l u n d p d n s e r a l f t r s  
t h e p n i p a l s b g t h Q o f t h e r e n a s o t h  
t y p f r y t a l u t d a d i m p s a n g o f  
p a t u n t h e t y p f t e d n d t h e a m o u n t  
l p w d p l e d t h e t T h e r m i t  
n s i n d t n h n o c l l i r t a b l l  
The p p l t f q z t a l f l l t  
t b l t o h m d e p t b l u r m d r n d  
n d t l n b d t g d t r y d m b l  
d m m u t n s w t h a t r f t n d g r u d  
h l S O c i l l a t o r

Q z r y t a l a t a e a l o e d a l  
t s f q u n y s p e f i l t r M n y  
t h d f h r y t a l a e e d t l e p h  
t m f a f q e c y p a t u n d i  
d m m u i a t q p m n t f r l i n g a d  
e d g l l q b d w h l r i n g d  
e d f q S F i l t e r  
f d g p z o l e t l i m n t a r  
e d f m t g b t o t l e r t a l g  
l e n d n d h p p l e t a c r t l  
m p h p h g r p h p k u p b t p k  
u p n d d y m p g l m t Th

1 e r e m e z e l e t r y e f f e c t 1 e d f r c n v e r t i n g  
l e t r i c a l i g n a l s t o m e c h a n i c a l v i b r a t i o n T h u  
p i e z o e l e c t r i c t r a n s d u c e r s a r e u s e d i n u h a p p l c a  
t i o n a s d e r w a t e r u n d r a n g n g e q u i p m e n t  
m d d a d i n u l t r a s o n i c c l a m m d e v e e  
w h i c h u s e a l i q u i d m e d i u m f r w a t e r m a l l t o  
m d i m n e d l e c t { F D L }

B i b l i o g r a p h y W C C a d y P r o l e c t r i c i t y  
1946 P A H i n g Q u r t C r y s t a l f o E l e t r i c a l  
C i r c u i t s — T h 1 D e s i g n a n d M a n f a c t u r e 1946  
W P M a o P i e z o e l e c t r i c C r y s t a l s a n d T h e i r A p p l c a t i o n s U l t r a s o n i c s 1950 W P M a o n P h y s i c a l A c t i v i t y a d t h P r o p e r t i e s o f S o l i d s 1958 P A i g u r e r a d C F B o o t h Q u a r t z l i b a t a s a n d T h A p p l c a t i o n s 1950

## Piezoelectricity

E l e c t r i c i t y o f e l e t r i c p o l a r i t y r e s u l t i n g f r o m t h  
a p p l i c a t i o n o f m e c h a n i c a l p r e s s u r e o n a d i e l e c t r i c  
c r y s t a l T h e a p p l i c a t i o n o f a m e c h a n i c a l f o r c e  
p r o d u c e s i n c e r t a i n d i e l e c t r i c ( e l e c t r i c a l l y ) n o n  
c o n d u c t i n g c r y s t a l s a n e l e c t r i c p o l a r i z a t i o n ( e l e c t r i c d i p o l e m o m e n t p e r c m t c e n t i m e t e r ) w h i c h i s p r o p o r t i o n a l t o t h e s t r e s s P o l a r i z a t i o n ( d i e l e c t r i c s ) i f t h e r y t a l i s o r i e n t e d t h i s p o l a r i z a t i o n m a n i f e s t i t l i e s a s a l t e r a t i o n i n t h e r y t a l a d d i t h c r y t l h a t i s u n i t e d f l w l c h m e a b o v e e r d d u r i n g l o a d i n g C o n s e q u e n t l y a p p l i c a t i o n o f a l i g e b e t w e e t a n f o r c e s o f t h c r y t l p r o d u c e s m e c h a n i c a l d i s t o r t i o n T h e m o t a l T h e r p o l a r e l a t i o n s h i p i s e x p r e s s e d t o a s t h p i e z o e l e c t r i c e f f e c t T h e p h e n o m e n o n o f g e n e r a t i o n o f e l e c t r i c i t y u n d e r m e c h a n i c a l t r a n s f e r r e f e r e d t o a s t h d i e l e c t r i c p i e z o e l e c t r i c e f f e c t a n d t h e m e c h a n i c a l s t a m p e d d n t h e r y t a l u n d e r e l e c t r i c s t e s c a l l e d t h e c o n v e r s i o n e l e c t r i c e f f e c t

P i e z o e l e c t r i c m a t e r i a l s a r e u s e d e s s e n t i a l l y i n t r a n s d u c e r n e t w o r k m e c h a n i c a l s i g n a l s i n t o e l e c t r i c s i g n a l s I n s h d e v i c e s a l s o m e r o p h o n p h a n g i n g p k u p b a t e n i n g e l e m e n t a d d e d l i k e T h e c o s e e f f e c t i n w h i c h a m e c h a n i c a l o u t p u t i s d e r i v e d f r o m a n e l e c t r i c s i g n a l n p u t a l o w e d e s s e n t i a l i n c h d e r i v e a s a c u e a d u l t a t r a n d u c e r d e p h o e s l d s p a k e r s a n d e l e c t r i c g e n e r a t o r s d i k k r o r d n g B o t h t h e r e d r e c t c o n v e r s i o n e f f e c t e m p l o y e d i n d e v i c e s h a v i n g t h e m e c h a n i c a l r e s p o n s e q u a n t i t y t h r y s t a l o f m p r i a c S u c h d e v i c e s a l s o d e l e t r a f i l t e r s a d f r e q u e n c y c o n t r o l e l m n t n l t r a n c i l l a t o r c i r c u i t s m d d i t n l s i m p l y m o n a p p l i c a t i o n s P i e z o e l e c t r i c C r y s t a l e a l D i s k R e c o r d i n g M e c h a n i c a l T r a n s d u c e r U n d e r w a t e r U l t r a s o n i c s

N e c e s s a r y c o n d i t i o n T h e n e c e s s a r y c o n d i t i o n f o r t h e p i e z o e l e c t r i c e f f e c t i s t h a t t h e e n e r g y o f c e t r i c f o r m t y i n t h e r y s t a l s u b j e c t e d t o t h e 32 c r y s t a l l o g y ( s ) C h r y s t a l l o g r a p h y 211 k a c t r o f s y m m e t r y a d w i t h t h e p o n f o n t l s i f t h e e a c e p e r e l t a I n t h e r y t a l l s i f t h e s y m m e t r y a n y t y p e o f t e g n e r a t e s a e l u r p l t n w h e e r y t a l s o f

drawn perpendicular to the axis of the circle (Fig 5) The major axis of an ellipse representing a horizontal circle is horizontal because it is perpendicular to the vertical axis of the circle

Shaded exploded view production illustrations greatly facilitate the learning process in a assembly of machines and devices (Fig 6) When this type of illustration is used the initial assembly of parts into a machine has been found to be three or four times faster than if a conventional assembly drawing is used [ASP CJB]

## Pier

A wharf projecting perpendicularly or obliquely from shore serving as berths for ships loading and discharging passengers and cargo Construction usually takes the form of a pile supported platform using steel timber and concrete materials Some times quay wall or bulkhead construction is used around the periphery with earth fill inside Piers may be open deck or housed over with sheds They may also have special cargo handling equipment thereon such as that used for loading iron ore Uses of piers sometime extend to recreational purposes such as fishing piers or to community purposes such as car parking Spaces between adjacent piers are called slips See COASTAL ENGINEERING WHARF [EJQ]

## Piezoelectric crystal

A crystalline substance which exhibits the piezoelectric effect This pressure electricity was first positively identified by the Curies in 1880 when they discovered that some crystals produced electric charges on parts of their surface when the crystals were compressed in particular directions the charge disappearing when the pressure is removed It was later discovered that these crystals become strained when subjected to electric fields the piezoelectric deformation is directly proportional to the field and it reverses in sign as the direction of the field is reversed The electrical properties of piezoelectric crystals are used in electromechanical transducers such as ultrasonic generators microphones phonograph pickup and electronic mechanical resonators such as the frequency controlling quartz crystals See PIEZOELECTRICITY

**Piezoelectric materials** The principal piezoelectric materials used commercially are crystalline quartz and Rochelle salt although the latter is being superseded by other materials such as barium titanate Quartz has the important qualities of being a completely oxidized compound (silicon dioxide) and is almost insoluble in water Therefore it is chemically stable against changes occurring with time It also has low internal losses when used as a vibrator Rochelle salt has a large piezoelectric effect and is thus useful in acoustical and vibrational devices where sensitivity is necessary but it decomposes at high temperatures (55°C) and requires protection against moisture Barium titanate provides lower sensitivity but greater immunity to temperature and humidity effects Other

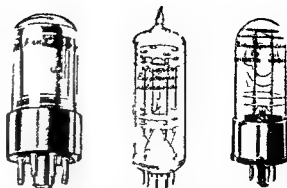


Fig 1 Typical vacuum mounted quartz crystals (North American Engineering Laboratories)

crystals that have been used for piezoelectric devices include tourmaline ammonium dihydrogen phosphate (ADP) and ethylenediamine tartrate (EDT) See BARIUM TITANATE QUARTZ ROCHELLE SALT

The quartz crystal resonator is the most important class of piezoelectric device Its principal application is in the field of frequency control and electric wave filters It is also used in transducers, especially where heat or moisture are factors

**Characteristics and manufacture** The electrical properties of quartz crystals as circuit elements, including their temperature coefficient of frequency motional inductance and capacitance series resistance and electrode or shunt capacitance are largely determined by the dimensions and angles of rotation of the resonator surfaces with respect to the crystal axes (see CRYSTAL OPTICS) In commercial practice raw quartz crystals are oriented by means of x ray goniometer the required angles of rotation are measured on the mounting jig and the required blanks (unfinished blanks) cut from the mother crystal by diamond faced saw The blank is then ground to the required frequency using lapping techniques with graduated sizes of abrasives to obtain a smooth finish Some high quality crystals are given optically polished surface It is common practice to etch the surface of the crystal with fluoric compound to remove microscopic surface irregularities

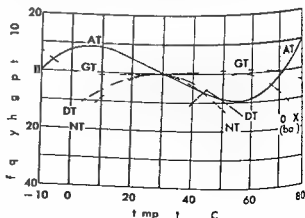


Fig 2 Crystal frequency as a function of temperature



higher symmetry only particular types of stress can produce a piezoelectric polarization. For a given crystal the axis of polarization depends upon the type of the stress. There is no crystal class in which the piezoelectric polarization is confined to a single axis. In several crystal classes however it is confined to a plane. Hydrostatic pressure produces a piezoelectric polarization in the crystals of those 10 classes that show pyroelectricity in addition to piezoelectricity (see PYROELECTRICITY). The pyroelectric axis is then the axis of polarization.

The converse piezoelectric effect is a thermodynamic consequence of the direct piezoelectric effect. When a polarization  $P$  is induced in a piezoelectric crystal by an externally applied electric field  $E$ , the crystal suffers a small strain  $S$  which is proportional to the polarization  $P$ . In crystals with a normal dielectric behavior the polarization  $P$  is proportional to the electric field  $E$  and hence the strain is proportional to this field  $E$ . Superposed upon the piezoelectric strain  $S$  is a much smaller strain which is proportional to  $P$  (or  $E$ ). This strain is called the electrostrictive strain. It is present in any dielectric. See ELECTROSTRICTION.

**Matrix formulation.** The relation of the six components  $T_i$  of the stress tensor (three compressional components and three shear components) to the three components  $P_i$  of the polarization vector can be described by a scheme (matrix) of 18 piezo-

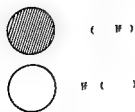
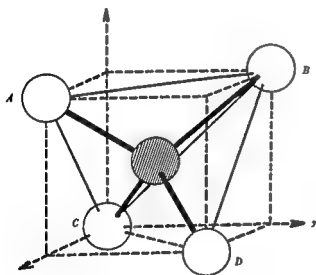


Fig 1 Tetrahedral structure of zinc blende (ZnS). Only part of the unit cell is shown. Size of the circles has no relation to the size of the atoms.

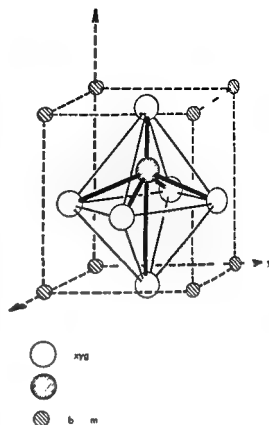


Fig 2 Unit cell of tetragonal barium titanate  $\text{BaTiO}_3$ . Deviation from cubic symmetry is suggested. Size of the circles has no relation to the size of the atoms.

electric moduli  $d$ . The same scheme ( $d_{ij}$ ) also relates the three components  $E_i$  of the electric field to the six components  $S_j$  of the strain.

		Compression			Shear		
		$S_1$ $T_1$	$S_2$ $T_2$	$S_3$ $T_3$	$S_4$ $T_4$	$S_5$ $T_5$	$S_6$ $T_6$
$E_1$	$P_1$	$d_{11}$	$d_{12}$	$d_{13}$	$d_{14}$	$d_{15}$	$d_{16}$
$E_2$	$P_2$	$d_{21}$	$d_{22}$	$d_{23}$	$d_{24}$	$d_{25}$	$d_{26}$
$E_3$	$P_3$	$d_{31}$	$d_{32}$	$d_{33}$	$d_{34}$	$d_{35}$	$d_{36}$

The direct effect is obtained by reading this scheme in rows.

$$P_i = - \sum_{j=1}^6 d_{ij} T_j \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$

The converse effect is obtained by reading it in columns.

$$S_j = \sum_{i=1}^3 d_{ij} E_i \quad j = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$$

An analogous matrix ( $e_{ij}$ ) relates the strain to the polarization and the electric field to the stress.

$$P_i = \sum_{j=1}^6 e_{ij} S_j \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$

$$T_j = - \sum_{i=1}^3 e_{ij} E_i \quad j = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$$

The matrices ( $d_{ij}$ ) and ( $e_{ij}$ ) are not independent.





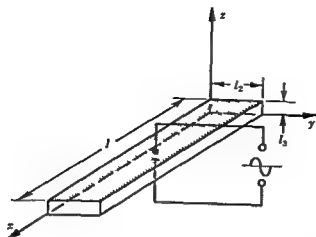


Fig. 4. Simple piezoelectric resonator. A voltage applied to the electrodes shortens or lengthens the bar acting as a rigid vibrator.

natural crystal axis so that an electric field  $E_3$  along  $z$  causes a strain  $S_1$  along the bar according to the equation  $S_{1(p)} = d_{31} E_3$ . A mechanical stress  $T_1$  along the bar causes a strain  $S_{1(m)} = s_{11}^{-1} T_1$  where  $s_{11}^{-1}$  is the elastic compliance measured at constant electric field  $E_3$ . The resonance frequency for the fundamental lengthwise compressional mode is then

$$f_R = 1/(2l_1 \sqrt{\rho s_{11}^{-1}}) \text{ cps}$$

where  $\rho$  is the density of the crystal. The parallel capacitance  $C$  is the static capacitance of the crystal

$$C_0 = \frac{\epsilon l_2 l_3}{4\pi l_1 (9 \times 10^{11})} \text{ farad}$$

Here  $\epsilon$  is the relative dielectric constant along  $z$ . For  $C$  and  $L$  the analysis yields

$$C = \frac{8d_{31}^2 l_2 l_3}{\pi s_{11}^{-1} l_1 (9 \times 10^{11})} \text{ farad}$$

$$L = \frac{\rho (s_{11}^{-1})^2 l_2 l_3 (9 \times 10^{11})}{8d_{31}^2 l_1} \text{ henry}$$

(All physical constants are in cgs units.) For the  $n$ th overtone  $C$  and  $L$  remain the same whereas  $C$  must be divided by  $n$ . The  $1/Q$  (damping) represented by the resistance  $R$  in Fig. 3 arises, for example, from ultrasonic radiation friction in the crystal mount, internal friction in the crystal originating in various imperfections, and from dielectric relaxation.

At the mechanical resonance frequency  $f_R$  the ac current is maximum and is determined by  $R$ . At the antiresonant frequency

$$f = \sqrt{(C + C_0)/LC C_0}$$

the current is minimum. The difference  $\Delta f = f_A - f_R$  increases with increasing electromechanical coupling according to the equation

$$\Delta f \approx 4k/f -$$

The reactance depends upon frequency as

shown in Fig. 5. For a typical piezoelectric crystal such as quartz resonating at about 10 cps the following orders of magnitude are typical for the elements of the equivalent network

$$L \approx 10 \text{ henry}$$

$$C \approx 2 \times 10^{-14} \text{ farad}$$

$$C_0 \approx 5 \times 10^{-12} \text{ farad}$$

The damping resistance  $R$  varies from about 10 to 10 ohms, that is the  $Q$  factors

$$Q = \frac{1}{R} \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}}$$

are in the range between 10 and 10<sup>5</sup> and the resonances are very sharp. The  $Q$  characteristic cannot be achieved with conventional coils and condensers as circuit elements.

**Vibration modes.** With piezoelectric resonators of various types the range from audio frequencies to many megacycles per second can be covered. The vibration modes frequently used are (in order of increasing frequency) (1) flexural vibrations of bars and plates, (2) longitudinal vibration of bars and plates, (3) face shear vibrations of plates and (4) thickness shear vibrations and compressional vibrations of plates. Figure 6 illustrates some of the  $e$  modes. The excitation of particular vibration modes can be achieved by proper orientation of the resonator with respect to the natural crystal axes by proper positioning of the electrodes and by proper mounting. A simple example is illustrated by Fig. 4. A bar is oriented so that an electric field along  $z$  causes an expansion or contraction along  $x$ . The electrodes are split and cross-connected so that the bar flexes in the  $yz$  plane when a voltage is applied. The fundamental flexure mode is easily excited with this arrangement. However, excitation of higher even-numbered flexural modes is also possible. Interesting resonators

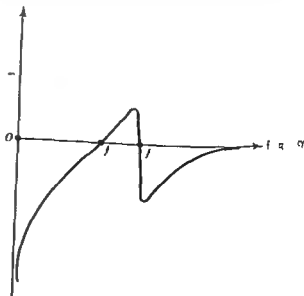
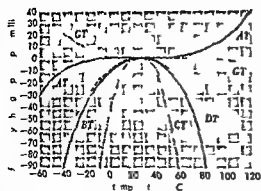


Fig. 5. Reactance

frequency of a piezoelectric





Co re mat ial h a pami are oft n  
dd d whe a n n l p pery at n is r q red  
Gla b d e e a erv high d gree fr fra u ny  
in th d e r i o n f l l u m i n a t i o n a n d a r e o f t e n u d  
in n t r i n e p a n t f r s o n w h e r e n l t i b l  
t y r q u d l n t m e c n t p i m e t p u f f u p u n  
d e r t a t g g a n s u l a t n g c i g w h c h r t  
f Se COLO DYE PAI R SURFACE COATING  
[F.S.O.]

B d l e p h y W v n F i h e r ( e d ) P a i n t a n d  
f a h t h l o g y 1948

# Pigmentation

The mal in of th b dy nd it o g n e h s  
fr m a u m t n f the t u a l c i r of the t-  
the p g m e i s d p i t e d the e i n and the p g  
m e n t c a i d t r g h i s h b l o d b a t h n g i t O f  
th p g m e t a p e n t i t h k a n d h a i r m e l a n i n  
m t i m p o r t t w h i l h e m o g l b i n i s r e d u c e d  
a d d e d f m the m t i m p r i n t b l o d  
b e p g m t S e C i n o r t o r i o n e

Melanin Th a p g m e n t p r e n t a m  
e p e o b m r p l w n o l l k g r n  
le th l i t h e p r b a l l a y r i t h k  
a o a l l y i n t h n d e l g d m i m t h l t  
a n d n t h i t i p e a t b l a l i z e d i n t h e  
m t h o d a d a p o l y m e f j l g a i  
p o n d s d r e d f m t h a m n a c d t y r m e  
b y t h a i n f i t h m e t a T h e e f f e t  
f m e l n k i n l o p d n o t o n l y n i t  
l i o l i t l n a l l y i t n e  
d i g h t T h e b g l l o f t h e p e r m  
f b b f a m p l e a s e i t f t h e e a t  
f n g l g h t i m d r k p g m e t g a l e a n  
f r t a l a r n g e m e n t

T h m t f m e l n t h a k w i t h n  
d e l m t f o m p t p m f m e t  
e w i t h i n m e m b f a g e i o k a d f m  
t t i t h b o d y n d d i n b i n b  
t t t c h n w h e n t m u l t i d b y a a c t f  
f e T h d a k o l f t h e g r d k i n d u t  
t h o t t n f e l n n n t h k a t h e d a k  
l o f t h e e y e s h a p p l a d g n i t a n C u  
i s h e a t h y t h m e a u E x p u r t o  
l t r i t a u n l g h t t o t h n a s g  
a d t n i n a i s t m u s t f m l a n n  
p t t h k n

T h i f t h h a d p d t h e e l t h u p  
f t m t n d e t a t n f p m t a d  
t h e d r k t h i a t h m t p g m t a d l e

T h g r a t w h s h f l d a g o n t s l  
m t m e l n

Control of pigmentation I m n y n m l a p r b  
l l d g m m m l p m n t a n a t l e a  
t m t n t n t l l d b y h m a t a b l  
p t a r o h r m e f t h p t t y g l n d  
k n a m i a t m l t n g h r m n ( M S H )  
T h i m n t r m l r h m o i w h c h h a  
t i n g f f i n k i n l n a m p h b n s a d f h  
r e m l l p l p r e t n t h g n a l d e f a n g  
f g m i n h h m p j m e n d i  
m s d b y h r m n l m b l a n e I n t h e

condition th re may be a direct or indirect influ  
e c o n M S H p r o d u c t i o n O t h e r c d i s t n a c i  
a t d w t h v a r i a t i o n s n t h e t r i d e c h m n e  
a n d o f t h e t h y r o i d h o r m o a r e a l o a o c i a t e d  
w t h c h a n g e i n k i n p i g m e n t a t i o n

A n t h r p i b l e c o n t r o l l i n g f o r c e o r k i n p i g  
m e n t a t i o n i t h e n e r v o u s s y s t e m T h e c e l l w h i c h  
p r o d u c e s m e l a n i n i n t h e b o d y h a v t h e a m e m  
b r y o l o g i c a l d e r v a t i o n a s n e o u t u e a n d i n d  
r t e i d e n e e u g g e i s t h a t t h e r e i s s o m e n e u r a l  
o n t o l o r i t h e c e l l

T h b a i p a t t e r n o f p i g m e n t a t i o n i s o f c i r e  
h r d t r i l y d e t e r m i n e d a n d m e a n r m a l i s  
o f p i g m e n t a t i o n h e i m l h e d i t a r y l a i

Focal abnormalities I n m l a n n p i g m e n t i n  
f o c a l a b n o r m a l i t y i n c l u d e t h e f a m i l i a r f e c k l e  
a d t h e d a k k i n b l e m i s h e s k n w n a m l e o r  
n T h e l o n r s t e c t f c a l t e i e d e p  
t i o n o f m e l a n i n t h y t a r e e n t i r e l y b e n i g n b u t a  
m a l i g n a n t c o u n t e r p a r t e x i s t i n t h e m a l i g n a n t m e l  
a n o m w h c h a p p e a r s t o m e a b u t a s w i l d u n o n  
t r l l e d o r g r w t h o f t h m l a n p r o d u c i n g c e l l s  
F o c l p t o f h y p p i g m e n t a t i o n a l o c c u r c o m  
m o n l y i e p o n e t i n f l a m m a t i o n o r i r r i t a t i o n  
A m o n g t h e f c a l a b n o r m a l i t i e s a r e t h e i r r e g u l a r  
p t h e f d p g m e t a t o n o c c u r o n l y p e e n t  
f r o m b i t h l u c k r m i r a i n g l a t e r i n l i e a s

r l t f i n f e t o n t r i m a n g o m e u n k n o w n  
a e f i l g o S p o t s f h y p p i g m e n t a t i o n o f  
a r y n g a n d h a p s o c c u r i n n j u n t i o n w t h  
c h a a d d e a s a s p o l y o t t i f i b r o d y s p l  
a ( a d s o f b w i t h a n a s o i a t d e n d o r i n e  
b n m a l t y ) n e o f i b r o m a t o ( m u l t i p l w d e  
p a d b e i g n t u m r o f n e u r a l r i g i n ) n e s t i n a l  
p o l y p s ( a h r i t a b l e c o n d i t i o n h a a c t e r i z e d b y  
m u l t i p l p h y p o f t h i n t e t e ) a n d i n a o i s  
i n n w i t h r o u s n t e n l m a l g a t t u m r s

Generalized abnormalities I n e x t e r n l m e l a n n  
p i g m e n t u n a f f e c t g e t h e t i e b d y u s e  
g n e l i z d a b n o r m a l i t y e r t n e u n c o m m o n T h e  
m p l e t e p a r t a l a b s n e o f m e l a n i n f o u n d i n  
l i b i n t a n u n d o n d s d e r i n h t d a M e  
d i a n r a u e v e o n m l d c a a s a n i r r e g u l a r  
d m n a n t a u e d b y t h l c k o f t h e e n z y m e t y s i n  
a s w h h n e c r y t c o v e r t t y s i n e t o m e l  
a n i n T h e l k f p i g m e t a t i o n i n t h e y e i t h s e  
u b j e c t s a c o m m n l a o c a t e d w t h o c l d f f i

h s l p h e n y l p r o c h i g p h m a r a r e e  
i n b r n d i d e t c h a r a t e r e d b y m e n t a l  
d e f i c i n y t h e s l a c k f t y m b o u e t h  
e n z y m c e r y t e n e r t h a m n o a d p h n  
y l a l a e t t y o l a k n g a d a l t h o u g h t y  
n a i n t d m n s h d t h u a l a m o u n t o f m l  
a n n o t b e f r m d T h e p a t i e n t i s t h e r e f o r e  
p l e

G e r a l z d h y p p i g m e t a t i o n c r n a d e  
n l h y p f n e t o n ( A d d i o n s d i e a ) u b b l y  
d t l y t h u g h e f f t M S H w h l h y p o  
p i t u i t a r y m e a u s h y p p i g m e t i t b e c e  
M S H p r o d u c t i o n p p d t h e u n d e r t e  
p r i m a r y g l a n d T h h n g m p i g m e n t i n n f  
t h n p p l e a d t h r a m p e g n e c y w e l l

white pigment of interior paints but has been largely superseded by titanium dioxide

Lithopone is the pigment which results when solutions of barium sulfide and zinc sulfate are mixed precipitating zinc sulfide and barium sulfate both of which are water insoluble. The pigment contains about 30% zinc sulfide which is responsible for the hiding power. Although large amounts of this pigment were made and used in past years it too has been largely superseded by titanium dioxide.

Pure zinc sulfide has a refractive index almost as high as that of titanium dioxide. It has however almost no advantages over titanium dioxide and is not widely used.

Antimony oxide is occasionally used in enamels but is most commonly found as an ingredient of certain fire retardant paints.

**Transparent pigments** The refractive indexes of the transparent pigments are very close to the index of the paint vehicle (about 1.54). They are used to provide bulk to control settling and to contribute to durability, hardness and abrasion resistance. They are often referred to as inert pigments which is in error because some are extremely reactive. Because one of their common uses is to add bulk to other pigments they are often called extenders. Most transparent pigments are natural minerals reduced to pigment particle size. Among the most commonly used are calcium carbonate (ground lime, tone whitening or chalk), magnesium silicate, clay, silica or barytes (barium sulfate). Barium carbonate and other minerals are sometimes used. Precipitated barium sulfate (blanc fixe) or calcium carbonate are sometimes available often as by-product of some chemical operation. Transparent pigments often constitute a substantial portion of a protective coating.

**Colored pigments** These pigments are available in a wide variety of colors and properties depending upon the end use. Several hundred have been used at one time or another but the following are most common.

**Red** Iron oxide, often classified by color, include Indian red, Spanish red, Persian Gulf red and Venetian red (a mixture of iron oxide and calcium sulfate). Other red pigments include cadmium red (cadmium selenide) and organic reds which are usually coal-tar derivatives either precipitated in pigment form (toners) or deposited on a transparent pigment (lakes). Organic reds include toluidines and lithols.

**Orange** Chrome orange (basic lead chromate), molybdate orange (lead chromate molybdate) and various organic toners and lakes are the most common orange pigments.

**Brown** Browns are nearly always iron oxides although certain lakes and toners are used for special purposes.

**Yellow** These pigments include natural iron oxides such as ochre or sienna or synthetic iron oxides which are stronger and brighter, chrome yellow (normal lead chromate), cadmium yellow

(cadmium sulfide) and organic toner and lakes such as Hansa Yellow and benzidine yellow.

**Green** The most important green pigments are chrome green (a mixture of chrome yellow and Prussian blue), chromium oxide which is duller but more permanent, phthalocyanine green which is an organic pigment containing copper and various other organic toners or lakes often precipitated with phosphotungstic or phosphomolybdic acid.

**Blue** The blue pigments include Prussian blue (ferric ferrocyanide sometimes called malum or Chinese blue depending upon the shade), ultramarine an inorganic pigment made by fusing soda, sulfur and other materials under controlled conditions, phthalocyanine blue, an organic pigment containing copper and numerous organic toners and lakes.

**Purples and violets** These are nearly all organic toners or lakes. Manganese phosphate is an inorganic purple pigment but is very weak.

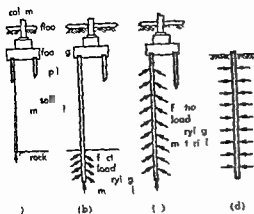
**Blacks** The vast majority of black pigments consist of finely divided carbon (carbon black, lamp black and bone black) usually obtained by allowing a smoky flame to impinge on a cold surface. Black iron oxide and certain organic pigments are used where special properties are required.

**Special pigments** Anticorrosive pigments are used to prevent the formation or spread of rust on iron when the metal is exposed by a break in the coating. The most common are red lead, an oxide of lead and zinc yellow or zinc chromate, a basic chromate of zinc. Other colored chromates are sometimes used. The color of red lead fades rapidly and the anticorrosive chromates are usually very weak in tinting strength. Metallic lead is sometimes used for anticorrosive paint.

Metallic pigments are small, usually flat particles of metal prepared for dispersal in coating. Aluminum is most common because it will leaf and form a smooth metallic film. The flake are sometimes colored. Bronze, copper, lead, nickel, stainless steel and silver appear occasionally. Zinc dust or powdered iron is used more often because of its excellent adhesion to galvanized iron than because of its appearance.

Luminous pigments will radiate visible light when exposed to ultraviolet light. Phosphorescent pigments continue to glow for some period after the exciting light has been removed. They are usually sulfides of zinc and other materials with small amounts of additives which initiate phosphorescent properties. Fluorescent pigments lose their luminosity as soon as the exciting light is removed. They may be sulfide or aluminates but many organic pigments have this property. See LUMINOUS PAINT.

There are many kinds of other specialized pigments including those which change color at predetermined temperature for use in indicating fire areas on machinery and to give a pearlescent appearance and pigment which conduct electricity.



(a) (b) (c) (d) As shown in the diagrams, the pile foundations are classified into four types: (a) single pile, (b) pile group, (c) pile cap, and (d) pile foundation.

nal mat through a table data water or  
Pl may a t a mp to f some type f  
with mp v i g t i a n p o w e

Be r g a l e f a p l i t h l w b l e o p r e m p t e d w h l i p a t i c u l a r t y p e l e n g t h a n d f p l i t i n s p a c e c o n s t a t h e p e c i f i c a n d o n d i t i o n t a t w i t h t h e t i e m e t i n e d n a c c p t a b l e a m t l t d e d u p t h e a b i l i t y t h n d i t e t h o d i m t h p i l i f t r e d l a g n d a p o t h e a b i l i t y t h o l t d i s t r i b u t e t h l d u t l a b l e i t a c a m b l d w i t h a e p t b l a m u t f e t t l e m t T h c o l l a m t a p a r t i a f o n d a t i t h p l e a d o l p p i n m t b e n d e d S S O I L M E C H A N I C S

All p l e d i b t f a d t h e s i n t h p e f o l d b l i f p u r w h c h m a y b s h w b y f e c t g p t i s o f q a l t e n t e t (F g 2) W h p l p n g r h t h b l f r n d a p l e e l p t h e y m g i n t a l g r b l t d g a g a t e r d e p t h O r l a p a l o l t i g r t n t f p e u a t e r t l e v l T h t d s p r d i g a t r e t t l e m e t S e t t l m t p o d u c e d b y a f i m l a d p p t n t t h d m e t f i h l d e d t f h l b i t h h l t l f l e c t m h l s o i l h e a l e t l m e t t u e l g d o f t i m e n d b e a c t h y a d p e d t u p o t e s t e o f p e s e r y w i t h d d l e t i d e t h e t r u t r e T h l i w a b l e d f t l t l m e t s h o u l d b e t b l h e d n e l

B g a p t e r u l l y m p t e d b y f m u l s t h m t c m m n f w h l i m t h e l m t e b e n g i t b e q u i t t h e d v n m d i g f x f t f e g v l i h m m e p l a d m p t S h f m l a a p p l b l y w h l o l B n g p l e m b e e s t m e d b y j u d g m t a t n t f t a l b e d p n h d e f d r i g t h e m p l w h n m k g a l t e s t b o n g s o b l h a t r y t t f l m p l s M t a c c u a t e e l t r b t a l e d f m f i l d l d g e t t n a t u l

p l e f o m w h c l t h e a l l o w a b l e l o a d i s d e t e r m i n e d b y d d g t h e l d a t f a i l u r e b y a f a c t o f a s e t y L o a d t e t a n c e e n l h o w e r o n l y t e t t h e h a i g v a l e f t h e l o r p i l e f r i c t i o n a n i g v n o n d i a t n f t h i l u m t e e t t l e m e n t s

P i l e d r i v i n g T h i s t h d r i v i n g o f p i l e o r c a s i g o r h e l l t o b e f i l l e d l a t e r w i t h c o n r e t e l y m p a c t f r o m t h e p i l e d r i v i n g h a m m e r T h i s t e r m i s s o m e t i m e l o o s e l y a p p l i e d t o t h e p l a c i n g o f p i l e b y a n y m e t h o d

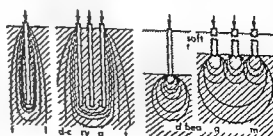
D r o p h a m m e r c o n s i s t o f a w e i g h t r a d i y a c a b l e h a m m e r o r a f r a m a n d a t e n d i n g f a c t a d r u m T h e w e i g h t i s r e l e a s e d b y a t r i p t h e d r u m i s f l o w e d t o w a r d r a p i d l y D r o p t a n c e r e s u l t s i n h i g h F r e q u e n c y f i b l w a l l w

S t e m h m m e m a y b o f r a l t y p e a l l f w h i c h r e q u i r e t h e u s e o f s t a m p i n g o r i c o m p r e s s r S i n g l e a c t i n g h a m m e r e m p l y t e a m o r c o m p r e s s e d a r t o r a s t h e m o a b l e m a c h i n e t h e n t i p p d n d f a l l b y g r a v i t y a l o n e I n t h e U n i t e d S t a t e s t h e m a v a b l e r a m i s d t h c a n g i E r o p e t h e c a n g m e t i m e t h m v a l l e p a t C h a c t e r i s t i c f t h e b l w a r e a l o w t r k i g v e l o c i t y b y a h e a y w e i g h t U b l e a c t i n g h m m r u e s t e a m o r c o m p r e s s e d a i r t o r a i e t h e t i n g p a t a n d f o t o i m p r t a d d i t i o n a l e n e g y d u i n g t h d w n t k T h e y r u n a t g r e t e p e d t h n d s g l a t i g h m m e s D i f f e r e n t a l a t i n g h a m m e r a l s o e m p l y s t e m o a r t o m e t h e t i k i g p r t a d m p a t d d i t a l e g v n t h e d o w n t o k b u t a o d a d r p f r o m t h e e n t e i n g t a m p u r e t m n f l c t e s t a m p e e

U c l h m m e s a r e l i c t n e d i n t m a d e u p o f c y l i n d e r p i t o n r r a m m a l l f u l t n k a d f u l j u t r T h e y w e i g h t s t h a n s t e a m h m m e s a d r q n t e m r a r a p p l y T h e y u s e s m a l l a m t f f u e l o l

J e t t i n g c o t s o f d i s p l a c i n g t h e s i l a t t h e p l e u p b y m e a n f d c h a r g e o f q u a n t i t y f w a t e r o r a t h r g h a n s t n a l m e t e a l j t p u p w h i c h a l o b t e s t h e s i d e s f i t h p l a s t r i e t o a p I t m d n e t a d t h e p l e n p i n g t h o g h h d t a n t t u t d t a b l y t o b e l e a g m t l o r t o b t m m b d m e t i h a r d m t s l w h m g h t u s d a m t t h e p l e

J a c k p l e d w e q u e s r e t a e t o t h r t a g a n s t T h m t h o d u s d i n d e p n n g w h e h t e c t i n s f p i l e r e i n t e r d a d



(a) (b) (c) (d) As shown in the diagrams, the pile foundations are classified into four types: (a) single pile, (b) pile group, (c) pile cap, and (d) pile foundation.

as pigmentation disturbances in eunuchs point to a control either direct or indirect of melanin production by the steroid hormones. Melanin deposition in the skin is also increased in hemochromatosis although part of the pigmentation in this disease is due to the deposition of iron-containing blood pigments. Certain intoxications notably arsenic poisoning can also lead to generalized hyperpigmentation.

**Blood borne pigments** Of the pigments normally present in the blood stream hemoglobin the oxygen-carrying pigment of the red blood cells is the most important in determining skin color. Its effect is best appreciated in the opposite phenomena of blushing and blanching in which an increased or decreased volume of blood and therefore of hemoglobin perfuses the skin because of dilation or constriction of the skin vessels.

The red portions of the body the mucous membranes lips and similar structure and the red organs owe their color to the proximity of blood-carrying vessels to the surface. Similar pigmentation is seen in hemangiomas the so-called strawberry marks and similar skin blemishes in which a local abnormal proliferation of blood vessels occurs close to the skin surface.

Qualitative and quantitative changes in circulating hemoglobin are reflected in visible changes in skin color. In anemia for instance when there is a decrease in this pigment the body is pale while in polycythemia a condition characterized by increase in circulating red cells the skin is ruddy. Oxidized hemoglobin that is hemoglobin carrying oxygen from the lungs to the body tissues is bright red while reduced hemoglobin is purplish. In condition in which the blood is poorly oxygenated because of disease of the lungs or heart or through the inability of the blood to circulate to the lungs (so-called blue babies) the skin becomes purple or blue (cyanotic). When carbon monoxide is present in inspired air it combines with hemoglobin to yield a cherry red pigment carboxyhemoglobin and when certain reducing substances are introduced into the blood stream another abnormal hemoglobin product methemoglobin which has a chocolate color is formed. The presence of these substances in the blood is reflected in appropriate changes in skin color.

Other pigments may be carried in the blood stream. Jaundice a yellowing of the skin is caused by the deposition of bile pigments in the skin. Carotenemia another form of yellowing of the skin is found in individuals consuming large quantities of carotene-containing fruits and vegetables such as carrots and apricots. Small quantities of carotene are normally present in skin and contribute a slightly yellow color to it. See JAUNDICE.

**Exogenous pigments** Finally skin color may be changed by the deposition of entirely foreign substances which may be introduced directly as in tattoos or indirectly through ingestion, injection or inhalation as in silver poisoning (argyria), lead poisoning (plumbism) and bismuth poisoning in

which the metallic salts themselves are deposited in the skin to cause pigmentation.

**Other organs** While other organs besides the skin may undergo color change the color changes are analogous to those seen in the skin. The basic color of an organ is determined by a combination of its fat content (yellow), blood (red or purple) and native pigments (ceroid lipochrome carotinolipin carotene hemoiderin) and by the scattering of light from microscopic and submicroscopic particles. The organs may change color because of increases or decreases in any of the parameters through introduction of foreign substances as coal pigments (anthracosis of the lungs) and products of calcium metabolism (melanosis of the colon) or through accumulation of colored material normally present in minute amounts (alkaptonuria, ochronosis).

## Pile driver

A machine that hammers wood, concrete or steel (H-beam or pipe) piles or plain or corrugated sheets into soft ground to support structure to make retaining wall or to keep water or earth out of excavations. Drivers are operated from tractor cars that run on rails or barges. They consist basically of a crane boom from which hangs a leader parallel connected guides that fit over the pile and contain the weight or ram, a potter or horizontal connector near the base that helps position the leader over the pile and a control cabin and power source. With gravity pile drivers a weight is attached to the top of the leader and let fall. With steam or (since the early 1950s) compressed air driver the weight is usually set on the pile and the driving blows are applied by a water hammer. In some applications water jet ahead of the pile are used to erode away a path for it, making possible the use of a lighter ram or weight.

## Pile foundation

A substructure supported on structural unit introduced into the ground to transmit a load to lower strata or to alter the physical properties of the ground. The supporting units called piles are made of wood, concrete or steel.

**End bearing and friction piles** End bearing piles transfer load from the footing into bedrock or other firm material capable of withstanding the intensity of pressure transmitted by the pile. Certain types of cast-in-place concrete piles can be formed with an enlarged base which will reduce the intensity of applied pressure and thus permit the use of end bearing of material of less strength or allow the use of a greater applied load (Fig. 1).

Friction piles are driven into fairly deep beds of soil of somewhat uniform consistency. They transfer their load to the surrounding ground by means of friction along the length of embedment or by bearing of the closely surrounding soil. The full length of the pile may be effective in friction or the pile may extend

W d heet plng nst of o two r three  
heck e of plak with ari u type of el e  
ne t ion It r ly ed f t lding fo da  
e a at n and coiff rd m

St el h t plng: fo m d f flat ch n l o  
t h p d t pr d d with dge int lck  
t clo h v n a wide range of t ength l  
a d t r f l d m p e r i w l l z  
and exa t n

C n t h e t plng nst of pre a t re tan  
g l o c e t p l with ed e re lock It: f  
t n t ed h l w r k S e CASSON FOUNDA  
TION CO FER H t RETAINING WALL [WPC]  
B b l g p h y S e FOUNDATIONS

## Pilot production

In ma irod ut n nd t i whe e ompl ated  
prod t p s equ pme tar b ng d el  
p d a l t p l a t f n l d d t h p e n t a t n  
o f a b t r p o d t t h u t m l w e r d l o p  
m t d m a n f t i t m o e e f f i e t f a c  
t r y p a t n d e t l r i t d u o n f i t h e  
p r d u t f l l n t h e g u g d e l o p m e t  
o f a p r o d t p r r m p l e a t d p e c e f  
e q u p m e n t n d t n f a k n d f l l a t n u n t h  
m d l h p u b e m d b l d n e x a r y t o  
t t h d e l p m e n t m l a t d f a  
t r v f

Facilities T a c m p l h t h t h e p l t p l t  
a n t r m e d t e p b t e n l l p m e t l a b r a  
t r d p o d t n f a t r y i t l h d l i  
p d e d w i t h p r o n e l d l a l i e t h i d p l  
a t e a n a r l y p b l t u a l m n i s a t r i n g  
d t b t a f e e o f t d t o d a y n e t y  
f m t g d i r y w h d l e

Th r q r p e r l w h o a s g l y k l l e d n  
t h l d b t t n n l y p e t T h y  
m t d r t n d t h t h k n g a d o h y t i d e  
l p m i n n n d m t l t p a t t h  
d a t o d v p l l m t h a t r a f t y p a t  
t h k l l e d i m k l l e d p i

A d q a t e q p m t a d e v h l d b e p r o  
d e d t o a m m o d t t h l l n g e f s a t r y r e  
q m t S m e t i m h e e e u m y b e i m p c  
t t t l d t f l i p l t g l a t  
h e c f l p p m a t n o b u f  
p e c l d r v q d l n h

g m t h l d b e m a d t p f t h e p l t  
p l n t f u t n g l p d t n e q u p m e n t  
t h f r y b t d p l t p l a t p e r v n  
d f i l t o i

Objectives S o m f t o b y t f p l t  
f l a t p t n t l l w  
t t t t l P l t p l n t o p t n d m  
t t t h b l i s f p q p m a t t  
t t t t l t h d d q l t y l e e l  
d f a t y p e r i g d t

M t l u a g T d t r t e n m a l  
g f m t l d g t h p l t p a t n t  
m t r a l e d f l d b t l y p r t t n d  
t n t h f l l a g f a b l t y p m t t e d b  
m t l p u h e p e c h a t n  
P l h l t P l t i z d m t r i  
h t h t h p o c e f e d a p i l a d

real t c and whether oper t i n g p r e d i r e s c a n l  
f o l l w e d i n t h e r e t i t e t y b y t h e t y p e f p e r n n e l  
u d i n t h e f a c t r y

E q p m t r l o b i l i t y T o d e m n t r a t e t h e c a p a  
b i l i t y o f t h e e q u p m e n t t o p r d u c e a t p e d a n d  
m c l u n e e f f i c i e n c e w h h w i l l b e c m e s t a n d a r d  
n t h e f a t r y d a t a a e r e o r d e d d u i n g p i l t f r o  
d e t n w h h h w w h e t h e r t h e e q u p m e n t w i l l  
p r f m t a u f c t y r a t e o f d e f e c t e P l t  
p l a n t e x p e r e e t a l l i s a l i s t o f s p a r e p a r t s  
w h c h w l l h n t a l l y p r o d u c e t h e f a c t o r y

P e s o n l r e q u i r m e n t s L a b o r e x p e r i e n c e s t a b l  
l h t h e a m o u n t a n d l a b o r g r d e f p r o d u c t i n  
a n d m a i n t e n a p e m e l r q u r d t o p e r a t e t h e  
p r c r e q u p m a t T h t d n w l t h  
p r a t i n o f i n d u t r i a l e n g i n e t i g a n d i n d u t r i a l  
r e l a t i d p a r t m e t

S f e t y D u n g p i l o t r u n t h e a f e t y d e p a r t m e n t  
h a s a n p p r t n t y t o r e s e w t h e p r c e o r e q u p  
m e t f o r c o m p l a n w i t h f e t y r e j r e m e n t

F a c t o r a c p t P e r h a p s t h e m t m p o r  
t a n t o b j e c t i f a p l o t p l a t t o a f f r d y p r e  
e t t o f t h e f a t r y t o w h i h t h e p r c e m  
e q u p m e n t w l l b t a n f e r r d a n p p r t u n i t y  
w i n e t h e p r t i o n d t g r e t h t e a d y  
f r t h e f a t r y T h u c r i c m o t h d e l p m e n t s  
m m d a d t a m t d t i n r e g l a f c  
t o r y p a t n m p l h d m r e q u k l y

M f t u r i n g a t P l o t p l a t o p e r a t i o n p o  
d e r t h p p o t a t y t e e f f i g u e r i n g t  
m a t e s f m a n f t u n g c o t n d m a y i n d e t t h e  
n t y f p r i c a g e h n g r f o r t h k g f t h e r  
t e p t o d u c e t h e c t f p d c t i o d e t o  
e c h t f t y l o f p r f i t

D l p m e t t T h e c t o f d e g i n g a n d  
d e l p g p o c e m r e q u i p m e n t n d f i n t r i t  
a p r n e l i n t h e i r u e t o f f o l y f e t t u  
f t h t t l o t t i l d d n p r d i n g a f i n a l e f f  
c a t p e r m a c h i n e T h d e b u g g g r w k  
g o u t f u f e e n p b l m a u m e a  
g e a t d a l f t m e a n d d a l r g e a m u t f e  
p e e b i r t h p e r m c h n i s d y f r  
f a t r y o p t i n T h e p l o t p l n t e l e e t h f a  
t y f a t x p n a t r a l u b t h i n d r t e t  
n d l t p o d e t n o f e t b l h e d p d u c t T h e  
l o e p r o m t y f t h p i l t o p e r a t n t n g i n r  
n d t h s k i l l d p e s a n l p e r t f i t h a d  
b e r v t f o p r t n a d q c k e r d i  
r e q u r e d c h a n g I t m y a l a e t h e x p e n e a n d  
t m e o f u b p s n n l a e l o n g t f t r y l  
t o n d i b e t o f e q u p m e n t f m t h e f a c t y  
t t p t f g

T h e f i n a n g o f a p l t p l n t h o l d l e o a  
b d t a s b k d f t f a c i l t y p r m l  
l p t h l d b p d e d a s p m f a m a n  
f a t g d e l y m e t b a T h p l t p l a n t  
h l d n t b x p c t e d t f i a e t e l f t h i g h  
m a f a c t e d p o d e t t h r w m n a g e m e t  
t n d t k p t h e p j e c t n t h p l t p l n t l o g  
t h n n e r y n d t a t e f d f o t p  
a t T h e p l t p l a n t h n l t a l a a  
d e v l p m e n t f u n t n a d t h e d t a l a a  
o f t p r m f t o i n t d e r m p y m e n t a d t  
t h l c w r t h t h



connected after each is jacked down. The resistance of the pile is measured by a gage connected to the jack. This method avoids vibration from driving.

Drilling is used to install pile. A drilled pile is a cast in place pile constructed by pouring concrete in a drilled shaft. This avoids vibration or displacement and heave of the ground. Noise from driving is reduced. Holes can be drilled where restricted headroom would prevent driving long pile. A bell shaped cut at the bottom increases bearing area and pile capacity. Drilling equipment is light and easily portable or is truck mounted. Precast piles are sometimes set in drilled or cored holes and grouted in place.

**Types of piles** Wood piles cut from straight tree trunks are widely used. Most commonly used in North America are southern pine, Douglas fir, oak, and cypress. Wood piles buried in the ground are subject to decay and insect attack unless submerged. Wood piles above ground are also subject to fire. In marine locations piles are exposed to decay, abrasion, and marine borer attack. As a preservative, wood piles are often treated with creosote or a creosote coal tar mixture applied under pressure. Mechanical protection in the form of concrete jacketing, pipe sleeves, or metal sheathing is also sometimes used on marine piles. Allowable load on wood pile are usually less than those on concrete or steel piles and they will not stand as hard driving.

Precast concrete piles are square, octagonal, or round. They may be of uniform cross section or tapered full length, or may have tapered points. Precast concrete pile may be used. Sectional hollow precast concrete piles are made of hollow spun reinforced concrete sections strung together on tensioned steel cable running through longitudinal hole.

Cast in place concrete piles need no storage space or special handling equipment. Avoid the cutting off or extending in of in making length adjustment and cannot be damaged by driving. Uncaused piles may be used where it is certain that neither soil nor water will fall to the hole or squeeze into it and reduce the size. One method is to drive a casing pipe and core, then pull the core, place concrete, set the core on the concrete, and pull the casing. A concrete pedestal may be driven out if desired. Cased pile are used where support is required for the side of the hole and where water occurs. A temporary heavy outer casing is driven and a permanent light lined in. In one method a core is driven with the temporary casing to displace the soil. In other method concrete or metal base are used to keep float of the casing. Thin metal shells may be driven by internal mandrel which are withdrawn and the shell filled with concrete.

Pipe piles consist of steel pipe of 6-30 in in diameter. Ends may be closed by hoe or open. Open type piles are usually cleared of oil by jetting. Both types are usually filled with concrete. Pipe piles are capable of carrying large load to

rock and lengths of 200 ft have been used. They are used where rock is within reach for end bearing where water conditions would require use of air if caissons were sunk and where oil displacement must be avoided. They are often used for underpinning where they have been driven in sections as short as 2 ft in restricted headroom.

**Pile designs** H piles are rolled steel sections frequently used as pile. They are suitable for penetrating rock or other hard material with less effort. There is a wide range of sizes and weights. Lengths have exceeded 200 ft. Protection against corrosion in upper portions may be required.

Box piles are made by welding to either sections of steel sheet piling or combinations of beam channel and plates. They perform the same functions as pipe piles. They are usually filled with concrete but can be cleaned out and filled to any depth for strength and protection the interior against corrosion.

Composite piles are piles in which the upper and lower portions consist of different types of piles. This is done to secure the particular advantages of a certain type without the expense of using it throughout. For example, concrete upper section may be used on wood lower section where the latter would decay if they were near the surface. H or pipe lower sections may be used under concrete piles where it would be too expensive to use concrete alone.

Sheet piling is a vertical wall composed of interlocking units used to retain a difference in ground elevation in which the bottom support is obtained by driving the toe below the lower level. Sheet piling may be wood, steel, or concrete and may be temporary or permanent. Factors affecting choice include cost, ease of installation, availability, resistance to corrosion, decay, ability to withstand lateral strength, and ease of making connections. Sheet piling is driven by pile hammer. Alignment and resistance to thrusts are provided by horizontal walers and braces or tiebacks.

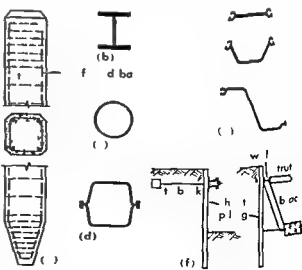


Fig 3 Pile designs (a) Precast concrete pile (b) Pipe pile (c) Box pile (d) Sheet pile (e) Sheet pile with waler and tieback

on the starboard bow t n degrees abaft the port beam or two p nt the port q arter)

Aboard hip b aring a e usually mea ured (1) by noting when two objects are in rang (di rectly in l n ) (2) by means of a stable attach me t to compa s or compass r peater (3) by p l m a ompa like r t me t without d r e t e p r p e r t e (4) ele t onic lly by rad o di ection f r e radar or by th nd cat on of the re e nd c t o r f a ele t o n s y t m of na i g t n S DIRECTION FINDING EQUIPMENT RADAR

D i s t a c T h i o w g e r a l l y mea d by ra dar i na t cal mil or ya d (m t r s n co nt i es n g t h m t y t e m)

D i f f e r e n t l d s t n c Between tw p i t ch d t a c i n a l l y m e d l e t o n a l l y by m a n of the e r i d t (a hyperbol e n a v g a t y t m The r a d g i g n l l y n m p e t i t h s a m o n d (n e m i l l i o n t h f a e c o d ) n e h u n d e d t h of a l a n w i d t h S e e H Y P E R O L I C N A V I G A T I O N S Y S T E M

H e d p t h D p t h f w a t e r m a u r e f i n f e t f a t h m s (6 f t ) M t p e l l i s a e u s d by m a r i f o m c i e s M e a s r e m e n t m a y b m d b y h a n d l a d (p o n n e d l d ) l a d e i t a t t a h d t a l u n d n g m h n e a r e l f w i e t o e e n d f w h c h s a t t h d a w g h t h h e r r e s a d e v c f r e a d g d p t h m e m m n l y b y e h o d e a d i e w h h e m t a o n u l t a o n g n l i t h e w a t d t m t h e t n o f t h S E C H O S O U N D s

A l t i t u d H e i g h t f n r a f t i m e s r d n f e t (m t b y n a m t r f o m e n t r e s ) b y m a f a a l t i m e t A b m i r e h r o b e d t m a h e i g h t b e e l e l o s m e t h e r t l e v e l b y m e u n g t h a t m p i e a t t h a r a f t A a b s o l u t e a l t m e t d i e m e s h g h t b o e t h e t m a l l y b y m e u r n g t h t m n t r l b e t e i a n m n f a l d t h e r t n o f t e c h f o m t h a u r f c e o b m t m t h p h a m d f l e r n c e b t a t h t m i t d g n a l a d t e c h S A I R T I T S S P A C E A I R C R A F T S

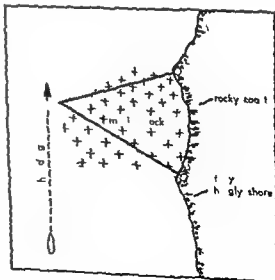
P o s i t i o n d e t e r m i n a t i o n f i m p l o t t i n g p i t n g s i d t r m n d b y m e n o f l o f p o i t m h n d t n g e s f p o b l p i t l t h a f t a t l i m o f m e e m n t A m i b r n g p d a t g h t l i n e f p r n ( t u l l p r t of a g t l e ) p a n g t h r u g h t h e j e c t g h e d A m d d s t a n e m d e a l i n f p o i t m t h e j e t t h n t d t h d i e t h r d i s A m e r e d d f l e t i d t n p r o v d a h y p e r b o l e i n f p o i t W h i s t r a g h o u l a l n e of p t i n l l p l i s d d t l y o t h e n a t i b h r i p e l h r i r t b i g e a l l y d t i n t e p t h y p e r b o l i o f p o i t s D p t h t w t r h g h t f l t g l l y d n t p d e a l o f p o i t n a l t h r a f t e s d i t f a t u u h a t h e 100-f t h m r e n t n d g

A p r i t a l l e d a f i s d t m e d b y e s n g t w m l n f p o i t o t a k e n m l i s

o i s l y o r n e a r l y s o I f o n e h i c i s a d j u s t e d t r a n a p p r e c i a b l e t i m e a r u n n i n g f i x i s o b t a i n e d T h i s i s o n e w h a t l e s r e l a b l e t h a n a f i x A t w o - b e a r i n g f i x i s s h o w n i n F i g 1 F i g u r e 2 s h o w s a f i x o b t a i n e d b y m e a n s of a b a r i n g a n d d i s t a n c e of a s i n g l e o b j e t

I n a i r c r a f t p l o t t i n g i s p e r f o r m e d s o m e w h a t d i f f e r e n t l y W h e n t u s u a l l a n d m a r k s a r e m e d t h e y a r e g e n r a l l y c h c k e d o f f u e s a v e l y f r o m a h i t o r a o n s a u t i l c h a t a t h e y a r e p a e d R a d a r a n d a d o m r k r b e a o n s a r e m e d i n m u c h t h e s a m e m a n n e H y p e r b o l a n d t h e r l o n g d i t n c e s y s t m s a e s d s t m a r i n e a g a t t i n M o d r n r a d i s r a n g e a n d m e l a n d n g a i s a r e e d l y b e p i g t h n e d l e f s p e c i a l n d c a t c e n t e r e d l a n d a n d a u r a l a g n l a r e u s e d i n o m o l d e r r e g e A i b n e r a d i o d r e c t o n f d e r a r e g e n e r a l l y of t h e a t m a t t y p p o v i d i g a c o n t i n u o u s n d c t i n f d r e c t i n o f t h t r a n s m i t t e r S e e N A V I G A T I O N S Y S T E M S E L E C T R O N I C

P o s i t i o n e t h e r a b a r d h y p o r n t l a i r m a y b e o b t a i n e d t h e r w a y s i f n b y c r n g l i n e of p s t o n C e r t i n c o m b i n a t i o n s ( f u c c e s s i v e b e a r i n g s of t h s a m e o b j e c t p r o d u c e i m m e d i a t e i n d i c a t i o n of p o i t o S i m u l t a n e o u s h r z n t a n g l e s b e t w e e n t h e o b j e c t a n f e t o n a t h r e e - a r m p o t a c t o r ( a l l e d a s t a t i p o i n t e b y B i t l n a v i g a t o r ) a n d t h e p o i t n d e t e r m i n e d b y f i t t i n g t h e a r m s of t h e t r i a n g l e t o t h e h a r t s y m b o l r p r e s e n t e d b y t h e h r z n t l a n g l e s a r e u s u a l l y t a k n b y m a r i n e e x t e r t i t s p r o v i d e s a a c c u r a t e p o i n t m e t m e u d n h d r o p p h c a r i j g r i l e t n g t h p o i t of l i t t g g a n a n h r b u t e l d m f r o t h e r p e A l e of s o u n d g p l t t d n a t n s p r e n t y a t t h e o r r e c t d t a c e t r v l s a t t h e l e of t h e c r t a d t h e n m a t h d b y t i l a n d r t t h s o u n d g s h o w n o t h e h t m a y p o v i d e a e l a b l e i n d i c a t i o n of p o i t n w h e r e t h e b o t t o m t p g r p h y h a s a d i s t a n t p o i n t U n d e r t h o f l e c n d t i n n a b o t t o m p o s s i b l e o b t a i n e d b y a r c o d g l s a n d e r a n p r o d e a b u t e p o i n t



F g 3 A h o t l d a g l

meeting production schedules. On the other hand arrangements should be made to credit the operation with a fair value of the product manufactured so that the net amount remaining will represent development cost more accurately. See PRODUCTION ENGINEERING [J E W]

## Piloting

A form of navigation by which position is determined relative to external reference points usually fixed points on the earth. It is the oldest form of navigation. Primitive man learned to guide himself by means of prominent rocks, trees, bends in the river, and other visible landmarks before he had any instruments other than his five senses. Piloting usually called pilotage by aviators, remained little changed until the application of electronics to navigation in relatively recent years. Before that time piloting was associated with nearness to land or other dangers to navigation and frequent or continuous determination of position or positional information.

Position of a craft is determined in three ways. Dead reckoning is the advancement of a previous position for subsequent motion of the craft. Celestial navigation uses celestial bodies; determination of position being with respect to the terrestrial points having the bodies momentarily overhead. Piloting uses points generally fixed points on or near the surface of the earth for determination of position. These traditional methods are now supplemented by electronic applications to navigation problems and by several other aids to all navigation.

Piloting and celestial navigation are different despite some similarities. In piloting position is determined relative to the points upon which certain measurements are made (sometimes indirectly); whereas in celestial navigation the objects observed merely provide certain information which is used to establish position relative to other points. This distinction applies even in space navigation.

**Points or marks.** Natural landmarks the only piloting aids available to primitive man have been supplemented with a great many man-made aids to navigation. Such aids are of several types. Beacons, both lighted and unlighted, and lighthouses are at fixed positions on land or in the water. Buoys, both lighted and unlighted, and lightships float in the water being moored at desired points. Unlighted aids are called daymarks. These are given distinctive shapes or coloring to assist in identification. A light installed as an aid to navigation is given a distinctive sequence and duration of light and dark periods and color or colors by which it can be identified. These characteristics are shown on the charts and given in the light lists available to navigators.

Some other marks are useful but most are visible aids to navigation. Bottom topography can be of assistance in locating the position of a vessel. Aircraft aids to navigation consist principally of electronic aids and lighted beacons. Electronic aids

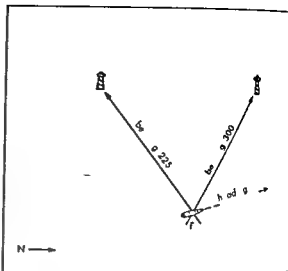


Fig 1 A fix from two bearings

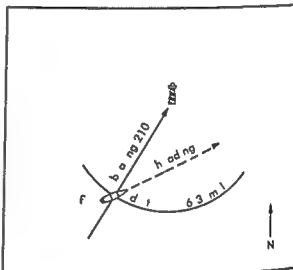
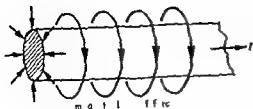


Fig 2 A fix from a bearing and distance of object

consist chiefly of beacons of various kind, airway radio ranges, and the various electronic systems of navigation discussed in other article on navigation.

**Measurements.** The measurements made for piloting purposes are of direction, distance, differential distance between two points, and distance from the bottom aboard ship or to the surface of the earth in aircraft. In some electronic systems the measurements are made indirectly, as by matching pulses on an electroscope, counting dots, and dashes, or centering points.

**Direction.** Bearing is the principal designation of the direction of a landmark. It is usually stated as angular distance from a reference direction, usually true, magnetic, compass, or gyro north. Values are generally given in integral degrees (although half and quarter degrees may be used) using three figures from 000 at north clockwise through 360. Relative bearings use the heading of the craft as the reference direction and may be stated as above right and left through 180 or with reference to some part of the craft (a broad-



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q t the fluid m t a l u n t l the neck p c h s f  
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t e c h n i c a l d i f f i c u l t y w e r e t i a l l y e m e b y  
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Thermonuclear applications Th t m p t u e  
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p t b y u m w h h h t h f u t n n t  
l y f p t g the p l s m f o m l e n g l d b y  
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p l m a n y f g n m t t w h h w o l d a t a b l y  
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e s s l to such t m p e r a t u r e s Th u t w a r d p r e  
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R E A C T I O N

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f t h m c h e f f e c t A f u i o n e a c t u m n o r t h s t y p e  
f c n f i e m e n t w o l d i d e l l y b e a t o r i d l t u b e i n  
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r e q u i r e d f o r the i n w a r d p n c h p r e r e t o b l a c  
the u t w a d g p e s s u r e

$$I^2/200 = \lambda k(T + T_0)$$

w h r e I s the t t l c u r e n t i m p e r e s  $\lambda$  i s th  
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the r a d i u s )  $\lambda = 1.4 \times 10^{-18}$  e r g / k ( B ) / t m n n s  
n t a n t ) a n d T a n d T <sub>0</sub> a r e the t e m p e r a t u r e n  
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E x p e r i m e n t a l s t u d i e s I n e a l t w o t y p e s o f  
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c o l l i n g f t h p l s m b y t h e r l a t i v e l y c l d l e  
t d e s s l i g h t d r n g t h t m of the e r e m e n t  
2) s o o d l d c h a g t b e a l c o m p o d f  
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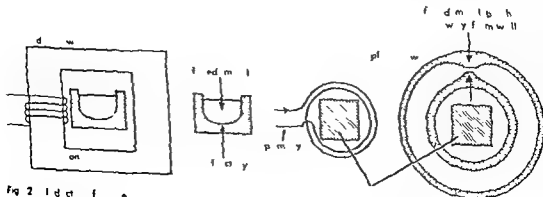


Fig 2 I d c t f e

A vessel can sometimes be kept in safe water without a fix. In an area where the bottom shoals gradually, a well chosen sounding can give warning in sufficient time to prevent grounding. A danger bearing of some object well ahead can provide an indication of a dangerous situation if the measured bearing exceeds the danger bearing. An off lying rock or shoal can sometimes be successfully avoided by keeping the measured angle between two objects less (or more) than a pre selected horizontal danger angle as illustrated in Fig 3. Similarly a vertical danger angle can be established between the top and bottom of a single object.

No other form of navigation prevents the variety of methods or taxes the ingenuity of the navigator as does piloting. In no other form is judgment based upon experience as valuable. See BUOY CELESTIAL NAVIGATION DEAD RECKONING LIGHT HOUSE NAVIGATION POLAR NAVIGATION [A.B.M.]

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## Piltown man

A fossil human being is usually the product of a skillful hoax perpetrated in the early 1900 by an unknown person. Various fragments of what were believed to be two skulls were recovered from about 1908 to 1915 by Charles Dawson a lawyer near Fletching, Sussex, England, and by Dr. A.S. Woodward and Father Teilhard de Chardin. The fragments suggested a being with a thick skull but a large brain, a high forehead and an extremely apelike jaw of early Pleistocene date. Crude stone tools and fossils of several Pleistocene mammals were associated. Accepted by some anthropologists as an actual primitive man but assumed by others to be the accidental mixture of human and anthropoid remains, Piltown man caused great difficulty in interpretation of human evolution until the hoax was detected and exposed in 1953 by Prof. Sir W. LeGros Clark and Dr. J.S. Weiner and K. Oakley. They established by chemical and other tests that the jaw was actually that of an orangutan, modern and not fossilized but stained to appear as if the teeth had been filed to change their appearance, that the rest of the skull was chemically different from the jaw and probably pathological and that the fossil animal had been introduced from various other places.

The fossil was named *Eoanthropus dawsoni* by Woodward in 1912 (also *Homo sapiens dawsoni* by Klein Schmidt). The jaw alone was named (by the originator) a (mixing it to be an ape) *Pan tetus* (Miller 1915) and *Boreopithecus laevis* (Friedrichs 1939). The remains are at the British Museum of Natural History. [W.H.]

*Bibliography* J.S. Weiner *The Piltown Hoax* 1955

## Pimento

A type of pepper (*Capsicum annuum*) grown for its thick, sweet fleshed red fruit. A member of the plant order Tubiflorales, pimento is of American origin and gets its name from the Spanish word designating all sweet peppers. In the United States, however, the term pimento generally refers to the heart-shaped varieties grown in the South for canning and used for stuffing olives and fish or in food. Perfection is a popular variety. Harvesting begins when the fruits are fully red, usually 2½–3 months after planting. Georgia is the only important producing state. The total annual farm value in the United States is approximately \$1,000,000. See PEPPER TUBIFLORALES VEGETABLE GROWING [H.J.C.]

## Pina

Pina or pineapple fiber is obtained from the large leaves of the pineapple plant grown in tropical countries. The natural fiber is white and especially soft and lustrous. In the Philippine Islands it is woven into pina cloth which is soft, durable and resistant to moisture. Pina is also used in making coarse grass cloth and for mats, bags and clothing. See FIBER NATURAL PINEAPPLE [M.D.P.]

## Pinch effect

A name given to manifestations of the magnetic self attraction of parallel electric current having the same direction. Since 1952 the pinch effect in a gas discharge has become the subject of intensive study in laboratories throughout the world since it presents a possible way of achieving the magnetic confinement of a hot plasma (a highly ionized gas) necessary for the successful functioning of a thermonuclear or fusion reactor.

**Ampere's law** The law of attraction which describes the interaction between parallel electric current was discovered by André Marie Ampère in 1820 and can be stated as follows: the force of attraction in dynes per centimeter length between two thin parallel wires  $m$  apart carrying current of  $I$  and  $I'$  amperes (amp) respectively is  $II'/100r$  (see AMPERE'S LAW). The law applies equally to the attraction between the individual components of a current in a single wire in which the force for cylindrical wire of radius  $r$  cm carrying total current  $I$  amp is shown up as an inward pressure at the surface of the wire (Fig 1) given by  $I^2/200\pi$  dynes/cm.

For the electric current of normal experience this force is small and passes unnoticed but note that the pressure increases with  $I$ . At 100,000 amp the pressure amounts to about 1 atm on the surface of a wire of 1 cm radius and at 10 amp the pressure is about 10 atm which is considerably greater than the pressure produced by the detonation of a fragment of dynamite (TNT).

**Manifestations** The pinch effect first observed experimentally in certain electrolytic types of induction electric furnace is wholly alternating.

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## Pine

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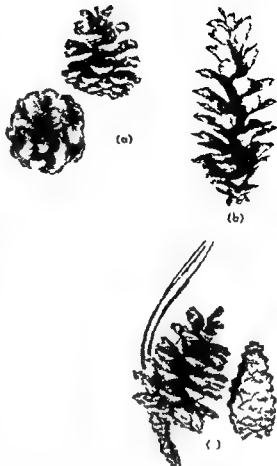


Fig 1 P o s ( ) P u s (b) P t l l  
(c) P g o (B o k l y B t G d B o k l y N Y)

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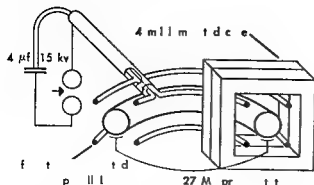


Fig 3 Schematic diagram of Perhasatron

few microseconds and decays to zero in a damped oscillation (see Fig 3)

**Instability** Characteristically, as can be seen by high speed photography the discharge forms at the inner surface of the discharge tube wall and contracts inwardly forming an intense line on the axis (Fig 4) the incoming wave usually bounces slightly the contracted discharge rapidly develops necks and kinks and in a few microseconds all structure is lost in an apparently turbulent glowing gas. Thus the pinch turns out to be unstable and the plasma confinement is soon lost by contact with the wall. The cause of the instability is easily seen qualitatively the pinch confinement can well be described as being caused by the magnetic lines which encircle the pinch and resemble slippery rubber bands which are stretched longitudinally but transversely are in compression (see Fig 5). For a uniform cylindrical pinch the magnetic pinch pressure is everywhere equal to the outward plasma pressure but at a neck or on the inward side of a kink the magnetic lines crowd together creating a higher pressure than the outward gas pressure. Consequently the neck contracts down further and the kink cuts in on the concave side and bulges out on the convex side.

Neutrons are reported from these linear pinch machines sometimes in great numbers (nearly 10 per pulse from the high power Los Alamos linear pinch machine known as Columbus II). It turns out that these neutrons are emitted preferentially

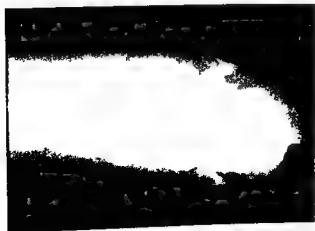


Fig 4 Xenon pinch discharge Perhasatron

in the direction in which a deuteron would be accelerated by the applied electric field and are associated in some way with the instabilities that have been mentioned. They are not produced by a thermonuclear (fusion) reaction occurring through out the pinch.

The instability has a disastrous effect on the achievement of thermonuclear temperatures by the pinch effect and great effort has been devoted to overcoming it. An improvement is obtained by adding an axial magnetic field down the inside of the pinched discharge. This has the effect in principle of stiffening the discharge against the short wavelength sausage and kink deformations. Next, a highly conducting wall parallel to the discharge prevents the escape of magnetic lines trapped between the pinch and the wall thus providing a cushion which should resist long wavelength drifts into the wall.

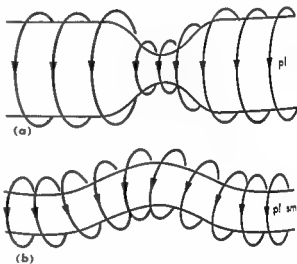


Fig 5 Illustrations of instability (a) Sausage type (b) Kink type

**Pinch machines** Pinched discharge with toroidal arrangement of this kind and having toroidal geometry have been studied extensively and have considerable improvement in stability. Such installations exist at Los Alamos Scientific Laboratory (Perhasatron S4, Perhasatron S5), Lawrence Radiation Laboratory (Toroidal Stabilized Pinch Machine) in the United States, Atomic Energy Establishment Harwell (Zeta) and Associated Electrical Industries Aldermaston (Sceptre) in the United Kingdom and were reported from other nations notably the Soviet Union, Sweden, France and Germany at the Geneva Atoms for Peace Conference in 1958. The most ambitious of the devices is undoubtedly the Zeta machine (torus bore ~ 1 m) from which the neutrons produced (~10<sup>6</sup> per discharge) were suspected in early 1958 by United Kingdom experimenter to be thermonuclear but ultimately were found to be the result of accelerated deuterons like those from the linear machine.

**Possible reasons for energy loss** The most powerful neutron bursts as well as one most

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 [F.L.S.]

## Pineal body

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Parietal eye I m a y p e c e s p a t u l r i v  
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 t h i f i t h k n w n t b e c n n e t i d h  
 t l e s t h h y p t h a l a m s n d m d i n  
 l l t t h e t e r n l e p l n m p e c o f  
 a m l

Structure Th p l o g r e p i p h i t a t  
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 t b g l d l a n m t r i b t o i l u d n g m n  
 i t h b h w t b t r y i s o m o f t  
 f r e l i

Th p n l p p r t i t e l l h b l y l a  
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Function F p m i h b y f h d  
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 m n m m m a l a l o n d t m f i t a t  
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 S i l i l i f t i g h t p i t t  
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 g g e s t m m p o t i w t h r p e c t s o l r  
 (t i t )

## Pineapple

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 n a l The e d b l e p r i n f t h i n e a p p l e d e v e l p s  
 f r o m a m a s o f a t e o a f l h v f l o w e r t c k h a v  
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 t t h e a e o f 1 2 20 m o n t h s a d m a y c n t i n u e t o b e  
 p r d u t i v e f r s m u h a s 8-10 y e r F r p a g a  
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 n a n d l t a r e u a l l y t d r e c t l y i n t h e f i e l d  
 w h e t h e y r t p r o d u c e Th l a f c w m a  
 i l l b e s e d a c u t t i b u t b a t e t h e y a r e  
 b i t d w t h t h e f r u t o t h e m t h d f p r o p a  
 g t n a e m e a t f a c t r y

The p i n e p p l e w a r m c l m t e p l a n t i n y r e d  
 b y t m p e r a t u r e b e l o w 3 9 F I t d o e s b e i n a d y  
 i m p h e e a n d e l t l y p o o r o l b u t r p n d  
 e l l t o f e t l e Th m j p o d u c n g a r e a t h e  
 I l w a n i l l a n d w h e p e a l m e t h o d f c u l t r e d  
 n d h r e t n h a b e e d e l o p d A p p e r  
 m u l h e d i n t h p d u t i n f m u c h o f t h e I l  
 w a n p a p p l e c r o p Th p a p e m l a d i n l o n g  
 t p b y a p a l m a h w h h p u l l o l e  
 t h e e d g e f t h e t p s t o h o l d t h e p l c The  
 m u l h a d i n w e e d n t o l n d e r e a m a t u r  
 p a t n f o m t h d B a u e o f t h t e n d n c y  
 t o r c h l r o o f p l n t g r w i o t h e s l a  
 p a n g w t h m r n a l t i f e q n t l y a r t o f



P p p l A t h o w g i t d i  
 (USDA)



Redwood) The annual cut is 300 000 000-400 000 000 board ft. The present stand is estimated at about 20 000 000 000 board ft with approximately four fifths in California. Other white pines in the West are western white pine *P. monticola*, a mountain species found almost entirely in Idaho, Montana and Oregon; limber pine *P. flexilis*, one of the smaller white pines of the Rockies; and white bark pine *P. albicaulis*, also a mountain species with a more northern range.

The nut pines or pinons are a subgroup of the Southwest with fewer needles, sometime only one.

**Hard or pitch pines.** Red pine *P. resinosa* also known as Norway pine reaches a height of 80 ft or more and is native in the northern United States from Maine to Minnesota and adjacent Canada and south along the mountains to West Virginia. The needles are in pairs and the bark has a red brown color, hence the name. The wood is fairly soft but a little harder than that of eastern white pine. The more dense red pine is also stronger and is important commercially for general construction, sash door and window frame manufacturing, flooring, boxes, crates and shipmasts, but it is not durable in contact with the oil. Frequently it is sold in mixture with eastern white pine. The stand in the United States has been estimated at about 3 000 000 000 board ft with about two thirds of the stand in the Northeast and the remainder in the Lake States. The average annual cut is about 150 000 000 board ft. Technologically, the red pine forms a sort of bridge between the soft white pine and the hard pine.

The hard yellow pines have two or three needles in a cluster. The longleaf pine *P. palustris*, loblolly *P. taeda*, shortleaf *P. echinata* and the slash pine *P. elliotii* are the principal trees of the southern United States that yield the so-called southern yellow pine lumber, a hard resinous wood in which the dark band of summer wood can usually alternate with the lighter colored spring wood. See WOOD (ANATOMY AND IDENTIFICATION). The longleaf pine is the most important of the three, being a leading world producer of naval stores. The hard strong wood is used in construction, flooring, railway car construction and shipbuilding. The longleaf and slash pines are the most important trees for the production of turpentine, a distillate obtained from the resin when the trees are tapped. The value of gum and rosin ranges from \$30 000 000 to \$40 000 000 annually. See GUM, NAVAL STORES, ROSIN, TURPENTINE.

In the West the hard pines are represented chiefly by the ponderosa pine *P. ponderosa* which attains a height of 150-225 ft and is found in the Rocky Mountain and Pacific Coast region, including adjacent Canada. The total stand and lumber cut from this pine (including Jeffrey pine *P. jeffreyi* which is commonly identified with it) are exceeded only by Douglas fir and the southern yellow pine. The total stand of western larch *L. laricina* is about 185 000 000 000 board ft and the annual cut between 3 000 000 000 and 4 000 000 000 board ft.

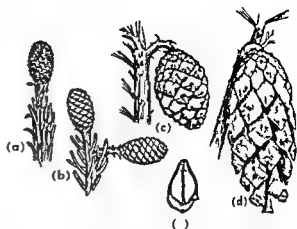


Fig. 2. Scotch pine *Pinus sylvestris*. (a) Male cone (strobili) on a branch. (b) Female cone (seed cone) on a branch. (c) Branch showing development of cones from young shoots. (d) Mature cone opening to show seeds. (e) Seed scale showing two winged seeds. (A. H. Graesslin, Illustrations of the Trees of the British Isles, 1956).

nearly half of which comes from Oregon and about one quarter from California.

The Austrian pine *P. nigra*, which has two needles and closely resembles the red pine, has darker bark and is much planted in North America as is the Scotch pine *P. sylvestris* with two shorter bluish needles (Fig. 2). The latter does well under American conditions that it has often become naturalized. Other exotic species often cultivated are mountain pine *P. mugo*, Japanese black pine *P. thunbergii*, and Swiss stone pine *P. cembra*, the last a 5-needled species. See FOREST AND FORESTRY TREES. [A.H.G.]

## Pine oil

A material fractionated from oil recovered from longleaf pine wood. See WOOD CHEMICALS. Pine wood is either destructively distilled or solvent extracted to yield turpentine, rosin, charcoal and other useful commercial products. The recovered oils are further refined, and pine oil results from a definite cut in the fractionation.

Good grades of pine oil consist largely of terpinol. A typical pine oil contains

α-Terpineol	60-80
Dihydro-α-terpineol and other tertiary alcohol	10
Pinene and other hydrocarbons	10-15
Esters	5
Ketones	5-10

The textile industry uses pine oil as a penetrant, dispersing agent, wetting agent and inhibitor of bacterial growth in practically all wet processing of cotton, silk, rayon and woolen goods. In the paper industry it is used as a wetting and leveling agent in coating and as a preservative for finished products. It is also used for the preparation of disinfectants, liniments, odorants for cattle, gray and other medicinal preparations.

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 ou r f pr m te pineol and also f some f  
 t th r t tu nt Al t 28 000 000 gal f pnc  
 l s p duc d ann ally n th U t d Ct te  
 An mb r of ex nt al f e derved fr m th  
 needles a d nes f r u ther s es f pines  
 M t f thes re p odu ed n Switze land Aus-  
 t a Cerm y d R i S F s r t t a l o u l s  
 [E.L.S.]

## Pineal body

f m t mplete f r m th p n l may be r  
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 utgr wth f m the th r d e n t i l e m t h o o l f  
 th d eph lo f the brain Th p i al appa  
 t n t l e s e of the H t part f th bran  
 a d w i d e s d th ough t h r i e b r t n  
 m a l k g d o m . Th t w p r p l e m p o n n t s of  
 th app r a t e a r e u l l y k w n a th p a r t i l  
 y r p n l e y a d the r a l r g e r th  
 p p h y S B r i

**Pineal eye** In m y p e e a s t u e l r l  
 m g m y f i t h e l d b l o o d d m l t h e p r t  
 t l e y e m p t p e n t a d n p o s t n o t o  
 b e f l e e d b y l a d e n t n l n s o m p e e a s  
 f r m e s l e t a d b e t h l a y e r f t a l  
 e n t k n t h r t l e s w i t h n r b e n a t h a  
 l h t a m l g r e o n o f f r m n the skull  
 Th p r a l y e c m p t m a y o r m a t h a  
 d r e c t n r v n c t n w i t h t h b a W h e n a  
 m n e t e v e d e t t n e c t w i t h r  
 f t h b r a n k n w t h t h b e l p p a  
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 d t n  
 [H.S.L.]

## Pineapple

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P p p l A , h o w a f r u t n d l o v s  
 (USDA)

REDWOOD) The annual cut is 300 000 000-400 000 000 board ft. The present stand is estimated at about 20 000 000 000 board ft with approximately four fifths in California. Other white pine in the West are western white pine *P. monticola*, a mountain specie found almost entirely in Idaho, Montana and Oregon; limber pine *P. flexilis*, one of the smaller white pines of the Rockies; and white bark pine *P. albicaulis*, also a mountain species with a more northern range.

The nut pines or pinons are a subgroup of the Southwest with fewer needles, sometimes only one.

**Hard or pitch pines.** Red pine *P. resinosa* also known as Norway pine, reaches a height of 80 ft or more and is native in the northeastern United States from Maine to Minnesota and adjacent Canada and south along the mountains to West Virginia. The needles are in pairs and the bark has a red brown color, hence the name. The wood is fairly soft but a little harder than that of eastern white pine. The more dense red pine is also stronger and is important commercially for general construction, ash door and window frame manufacturing, flooring, box crate and shipmasts, but it is not durable in contact with the soil. Frequently it is sold in mixture with eastern white pine. The stand in the United States has been estimated at about 3 000 000 000 board ft with about two thirds of the stand in the Northeast and the remainder in the Lake states. The average annual cut is about 150 000 000 board ft. Technologically the red pine forms a sort of bridge between the soft white pines and the hard pine.

The hard yellow pine has two or three needles in a cluster. The longleaf pine *P. palustris*, loblolly *P. taeda*, shortleaf *P. echinata* and the slash pine *P. elliotii* are the principal trees of the southeastern United States that yield the so-called southern yellow pine lumber, a hard resinous wood in which the dark bands of summer wood conspicuously alternate with the lighter colored spring wood. See WOOD (ANATOMY AND IDENTIFICATION). The longleaf pine is the most important of the being a leading world producer of naval stores. The hard strong wood is used in construction, flooring, railway car construction and shipbuilding. The longleaf and slash pines are the most important trees for the production of turpentine, a distillate obtained from the resin when the trees are tapped. The value of gum and rosin ranges from \$30 000 000 to \$40 000 000 annually. See GUM, NAVAL STORES, ROBIN TURPENTINE.

In the West the hard pines are represented chiefly by the ponderosa pine *P. ponderosa* which attains a height of 150-225 ft and is found in the Rocky Mountain and Pacific Coast regions including adjacent Canada. The total stand and lumber cut from this pine (including Jeffrey pine *P. jeffreyi*, which is commonly old along with it) are exceeded only by Douglas fir and the southern yellow pine. The total stand of sawtimber is about 185 000 000 000 board ft and the annual cut between 3 000 000 000 and 4 000 000 000 board ft.

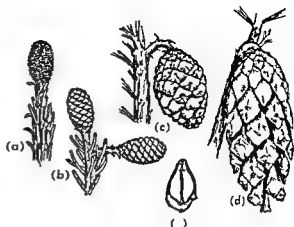


Fig. 2 Scotch pine *P. sylvestris* (1) Female cone (strobili) on a branch (2) Fertilized cone (3) Single pine needle (4) Cone open showing two winged seeds (5) Detailed view of a seed showing two wings. (A. H. G. 1956)

nearly half of which comes from Oregon and about one quarter from California.

The Austrian pine *P. nigra*, which has two needles and closely resembles the red pine, has darker bark and is much planted in North America as is the Scotch pine *P. sylvestris* with two shorter bluish needles (Fig. 2). The latter does well under American conditions that it has often become naturalized. Other exotic species often cultivated are mountain pine *P. mugo*, Japanese black pine *P. thunbergii* and Swiss stone pine *P. cembra* the last a 5 needled species. See FOREST AND FORESTRY TREE. [A.H.G.]

## Pine oil

A material fractionated from oil recovered from longleaf pine wood. See WOOD CHEMICALS. Pine wood is either destructively distilled or solvent extracted to yield turpentine, rosin, charcoal and other useful commercial products. The recovered oils are further refined and pine oil results from a definite cut in the fractionation.

Good grades of pine oil contain largely of terpenes. A typical sample contains

α-Terpinol	65.0
Dilysioacetone	10
Borneol	10-15
Esters	5
Ketones	5-10

The textile industry uses pine oil as a penetrant, a drying agent, wetting agent and inhibitor for bacterial growth in practically all wet processes of cotton, rayon and wool. In the paper industry it is used as a wetting and leveling agent in the coating and printing of paper and in the finishing of paper. It is also used in the production of disinfectants, fumigants, and in the preparation of a variety of other products.

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[300B]

## Pinworm infection

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[355A]

## Pipe flow

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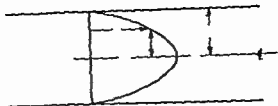


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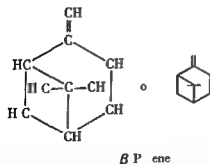
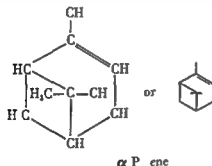
the fertilization program. Careful control of the nitrogen supply in relation to the hours of sunshine together with the use of hormone sprays under certain conditions has made possible considerable control over the time of ripening, an important consideration in obtaining maximum year round use of processing facilities. Pineapples are also grown in the West Indies and to a limited extent in southern Florida. In the latter area the average value of the crop for the period 1946-1955 was \$83,000.

Pineapples are consumed fresh in considerable quantity but because of distance from markets and the problems of transporting fresh fruit most of the crop is canned, either as sliced pineapple or as juice. In Hawaii the average yearly value of processed pineapple for 1946-1955 was \$91,000,000. See FARINALES, FRUIT GROWING (SMALL).

[J H CE]

## Pinene

One of the most important of the terpene hydrocarbons,  $\alpha$ -Pinene is widely distributed in nature and is the chief constituent of oil of turpentine. The beta variety often accompanies the alpha and is usually present in small quantities. Both exist as the dextro, levo, and racemic forms of optical isomers. Although theoretically  $\alpha$ -pinene should be capable (starred carbons) of having two dextro and two levorotatory varieties, no evidence of such isomerides has been demonstrated.



The pinenes are usually isolated by fractional distillation from essential oils, although the  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  pinenes are difficult to separate from each other.

Both pinenes are colorless oils which resinify on exposure to air. They are soluble in most organic solvents. As bicyclic terpenes they readily undergo molecular rearrangements forming products having a changed ring structure.

## Physical properties

	$\alpha$ Pinene	$\beta$ Pinene
Boling point	156°C	161-166°C
Density (0°C)	0.88-0.860	0.88
Refractive index	1.466	1.46-1.48
Specific rotation	$d = +51$ $t = -51$	$t = -22$

$\alpha$ -Pinene is the starting point in the commercial production of borneol, camphor, terpineol, and terpin hydrate. See TERPENE, TURPENTINE.

[LLA]

## Pink eye

An acute contagious conjunctivitis caused by the bacterium *Haemophilus aegyptius* (Koch-Weeks bacillus). This organism closely resembles *H. influenzae* but is unencapsulated and serologically different. Pink eye may occur in epidemic particularly among children in warm climates. Diagnosis is based upon the characteristic diffuse inflammation of the conjunctivae and sclera and upon the isolation of *H. aegyptius* on a blood-containing culture medium such as chocolate agar. It is treated with neomycin locally or broad spectrum antibiotics orally. Recovery produces little immunity. See HEMOPHILIC BACTERIA.

[W.F.V.]

## Pinta

A disease similar to syphilis caused by a spirochete which occurs principally in certain rural tropical areas of Central and South America. Cases have been described from other tropical regions. The early lesions and the general evolution of pinta are similar to but generally milder than those of syphilis and yaws. Generalized lesions develop a red, dish-purplish hue which is followed by atrophy and spotty achromia of the skin. Treponeme morphologically similar to *Treponema pallidum* are present in small numbers in the lesion. The infection has not been established in laboratory animals but has been transmitted to human volunteers. Serious late complications have not been described. The serological pattern and response to treatment are similar to syphilis. Transmission is presumably by direct contact. See SPIROCHETE, SYPHILIS, YAWS.

[T.E.T.]

## Pinworm

A species *Enterobius vermicularis* of the class Nematoda, phylum Aschelminthes, also called seatworms. This worm is one of the most common and annoying parasites of man. Some estimates of the degree of infestation in the United States range as high as 35% of the total population, especially prevalent in children. In some communities the incidence of infection approaches 100%.

The anatomy of the pinworm is basically similar to that of *Ascaris*. It is a small white worm, the males being only 2.5 mm long, the females 9-12

bly go d r ult = Pr ndtl e-cenenth powe  
l w

$$= \max \left( \frac{r}{\sigma} \right)^{1/r}$$

wh hy the d ta ce fr m the p p e w ll nd  
th p p ad [VLS]  
Bbb phy C F Cll k T bule t flow  
p p e with part ular r f r n to the tan i  
n g o b t w e e n the m th a d r ugh p p  
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## Pipeline

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a t a l g t e m a d m p e d P p e l n e  
m t h e l k p f n d m u l t p r m t h a p p l a t  
f h t p e s r e q d t f r e e n e y e d  
u b t a t h o h t h e l n P i p m a d e o f a v a  
i t y f m t a l a n d i d a m e t r i m l a t i  
f h p t O f t P s p a l m i s s t e e l  
w r g h t a d a s t i r o c r e t e c l y p o d c i s l  
m n m c o p p r t c m e t a d a h t (c l l d  
e m e n t b t l p l t d w o d

P i p e t b e d a p e c u r e a d n p e u  
p p f m y p u r l h l l a d  
g l p m p f o r e u b t a n t h g h t h e p p e  
l t e q d l t P e e m a y l d e v l  
p e d l b y g r t h d s f x p l e t y  
w t r m s f d f m e l e t d t k r s v  
V p p i p e d f g r a y f i n w h e r  
t h g d t i m a l n d w i t h u t m j s r g  
l t s a w l l e r t n d r t a  
t y p f g t n d t b t n v t m

D e s g n f p i p e l d e r h f t r a e  
q d p t y t r m l a d t a l p u e  
w t e a t i g h t p a n c h r t i s f  
t h e p p m t l h m a l c i t f t h l q d e r  
g b m n e d n d o r n

M o t p p i j n t d a l t h g h m e t p p  
m o l t h l l y t p l T h l e g t h f t h  
n d d i t n y f p p n d t h m t h o d f j n  
g t h d p n d p n t h p p m t a l d a m  
t e g h t n d q m n t f S i l p p  
e c t a l l y j d b y w e l d m u p l g  
e t g C a t n p p m y b j d b y u  
p l n g t h f b l l n d p g t p p b y  
f i l l g t h p b t w e n t h b l l n d t h p g t  
t h l k e d m f t d m t l l i d F l b l  
t p p j t w i t h u b t g a k t r l u e d f r  
j l g t n p p T h t b h g k i  
t d g a d d n l y t h s o l l e m t  
m a k i g t h j o t w t e t g h t

C e m e t r m t a f i l l d l a d f i l l d r g d t p  
b l l d p g t j j l l y e d f o j n n g  
e t t f i e d f y w r p p T n g u e d  
g e g d t y m r t f i l l d j s o f t e n d  
f n t p p f w p u t l l t s T h  
g b t y p e j n t m t f e q t l y d f o  
h t s m t p p d t p p d  
h i g h r e c S P r e F L O W [L v m]

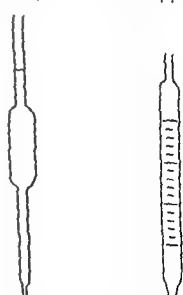
## Piperates

A p r i m i t o r d e r f t h p l a n t = b e l D i t y l e  
d n e a r j n l d r i g 3 f a m i l i e s t h e l a r l t i l f a m i l y  
{S a u r a c a e} t h e p e p p e r f a m i l y {P i p e r a = e}  
a d t h e C h i a n t c e T h e f l a n t l i a m i n l  
n a k d f l w r i n t h e l a t f a m i l y a m a l l l a t  
l i k p r i a t h L a k e t h S a u r a a t l e C h l r a n  
t l a e a r y m a l l f a m i l y o f n e e o m i  
a l

T l p e p p e r f a m i l y i n c l u d e s 12 g n r a l 1400  
p e c n d g n t t r p i a l e g m i t i l t  
O l d a n d t h N w W o l d S e r a l p e s h a e  
c n i d e a l l m m e i m p o r t c T l f u l t  
P p e r n g u m f M a l a y a a e d r i d a n g n d t  
p r d i e m m e r t a l l a c k p p r r t l e d l y  
i g r u d t m a k w h i t e p p p r T h e l e d b e r r  
f p p u b l f t h e F a t I n d i e s a t t h c b e l  
e d i m e d m T l F a t I n d i a n n a t i e s c l w  
b i l n t c m b n e d w t h t h e f e s h l e e s {P i p e  
b i l t h e b e l p e p p e r S e e P e p p e r C a r n  
P e p p e r s l s D I C O N T I E N D O N F A T E I N N O P H Y T A  
P l a n t K I N G D O M [r u ]

## Pipet

P i p e t i s a l l y m a d f g l s a d a e i e d a l  
m t h l y t o d l i e r a r a t e l y k n w l  
u m e f l i q d l t n T h r e a t w g n r a l  
a t e g e s f p p t v o l m t r r t r a f e r p p e t  
a n d t h g d a d m a t i c t y p { s l u t r a  
t n } l u m e t i c p i p e t a e e d t l f l w i g  
w y t h l i q d k e d u p a t v t e m r k n t h e  
t e m a b o t h e f u b s d t h u p p e r n d j q k l j  
l o e d w t h t h e n d x f i n g a y a g h r i n g l q d  
p e d f r m t h e u t d e f i h l w r t m t h e l e v e l  
o f l q d n t h t m f l w e d t o f a l l l l y h y  
g u l u g t h e p r e n t h e f i g e u n t i t h e l t  
t m o f t h m e n u t a n g n t t h e m k l q u i d  
l g i n g t h t i p m a d a n d t h p p t a l



l m p p b g d d p p  
P p t ( ) V o l m t p p t (b) G a d t d p p t

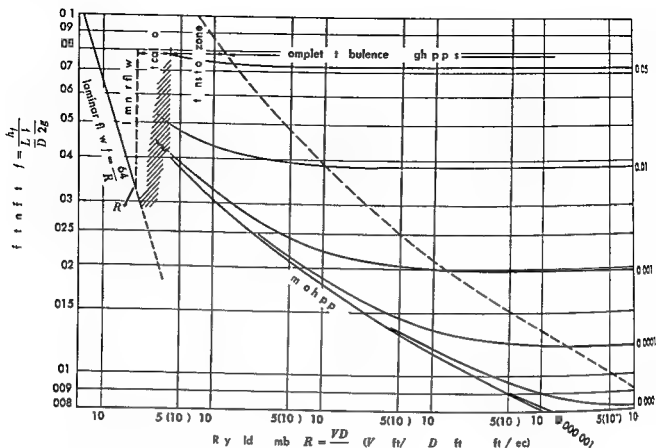


Fig 2 Moody diagram

For turbulent flow in smooth pipe  $f = f(R)$  and the expression for  $f$  becomes  $f = f(VD\rho/\mu)$  in which  $VD\rho/\mu$  is Reynolds number  $R$ . The form of the functional relation between  $f$  and  $R$  must be determined by experiment and is shown as the lowest curved line on the Moody diagram (Fig 2).

Because the laminar flow equation may be written as

$$h_f = \frac{64 L V^2}{R D^5 g}$$

laminar flow may also be shown on the Moody diagram.

For rough pipes  $f = f(R, \epsilon/D)$  in which  $\epsilon/D$  is known as the relative roughness. An empirical equation has been worked out by C F Colebrook which is the basis for the Moody diagram. It gives good results for new commercial pipe with values of  $\epsilon$  as shown in the left hand lower corner of the chart.

To find the head loss for flow of a given amount of liquid per unit time through a pipe of known size, length and type of manufacture, the Reynolds number and the relative roughness are computed and then used in the Moody diagram to determine  $f$ . With  $f$  known all quantities in the Darcy-Weisbach equation are known except  $h_f$ , so it can be determined.

When the amount of head loss is known but the discharge (volume per unit time flowing) is desired a trial solution is required. An  $f$  is assumed from the Moody diagram for the known  $VD$  and by it a trial value of  $h_f$  is found from the

Darcy-Weisbach equation. With this trial Reynolds number is computed which permits a better value of  $f$  to be found from the Moody diagram.

With flow of a gas the same method may be used as with a liquid if the change of density is small (less than 10%). For large density change the equation of state relating density and pressure intensity is required as well as special methods for obtaining head losses or weight per unit time flowing.

Head losses due to change in direction and in size of pipe and those due to valves are grouped as minor losses and tend to vary as the square of velocity. They may be expressed as an equivalent length of pipe  $L_e$  which is added to the actual length of pipe in using the Darcy-Weisbach equation.

With old pipe wall roughness tends to increase linearly with time so that  $\epsilon = \epsilon_0 + kt$  in which  $w$  is a constant determined by tests in the past. It is a function of the material and time.

Velocity distribution in turbulent flow in a pipe is more uniform than for laminar flow due to the larger transfer of momentum radially across the flow (Fig 3). A simple equation that gives reasonable

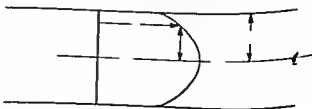


Fig 3 Turbulent velocity distribution

bly good = It s Pra dle one s ath p er  
l w

$$= m \left( \frac{r}{\rho} \right)^2$$

u h ch y a th d tan e f m the pipe wall and  
r is th ppe ad [V.L.S.]  
Bbl phy C F C let k T r b l t f w  
ppe with p t e l a r r e f r n to the tran  
n e g n h w e n th m th and rough pipe  
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1939 V L Str te F l d M ch s 2d ed 1958

Pipeline

M j t of p r h = a e f r th t r n p t a t i o n  
i p t l w a t r ( n l i d i g a g ) h m  
a l f o o d t f f p l i d a l n d g e i h a  
a t l g a t e m n d m p e d a r P p e l i n  
m t b l k p f d m s y m i t h a p p l c a t n  
f h t e p t r q e d i f r e v d  
u b t c t h u g h t h l e P p e m a d f a v a  
t y t t l a d n d a m t r f m a f r e t  
o f a m h u p t 30 f t P n p l m t e a l a r e t e e l  
w g t s d e t r n n r e l e i p d u t a l u  
n m m p p b e m n t a i b e t ( a l l e d  
m n t a b e t s ) p l a t u a d w d  
P p e d r b d p e u e d n p r u r  
p p f m n y p e u h e e b l l e i  
p l p u m p f b t t h o g h t h p i p  
l t q u d v l u P m a v b d l  
o p d a l b y g a t h d a f e x m p l i v  
a t m a f e d f m l e a t d k o e r v  
n n p p p d f r g a t v f l o w w h e  
t h g r d t m l a n d w i t h t m j g  
l n t u w e l f e r t s d e i a  
t y p f r i g t d t b u t t e m

D i p p l e d s h f e t o a e  
d f t t e n l n d t e n a l p e u e  
t a r t h i p n h r t e t f  
t p p m i l h m a l i v f i t h l i q u d r  
a b e n g d n d = n  
M t p p j t d l h o g h m e r t p p  
m l i t l i y a t p l e T h l g h f t h  
d i d l s n f p p d t h m t h d f j n  
g t h m d p d u p t h e p p m a t r a l d a m  
g h t f e q u i f S t e l p p  
e c t n = n j n e d b y w l d i g p l g  
t n g C ( n p i p e m y b e ) d b  
l n g s t h s f b e l l d p g t p p b y  
i l l g t h p i t t h b l l d t h p g t  
t h f k d m l t d m e l h i d f l b l  
t p j i s w i t h b b g k t a l u d f r  
f g a t p p T h o b b g k t s  
t d i g o o d r d a l v t h l e l m t  
m k g t h j w t i g h t  
C m t m r t f i l l d o l d f l l d g d t y p  
t l l d p g t j t u l l d f r j n g  
e t e t f e d l s w e p i p T n g u d  
g o o r i g d t y p m t f i l l d j n t s t e u d  
f r t p p e n t w p u a t l l t n T h  
f s b l t y p n t m t f e q e t l y e d f  
t e e t m e t p p n d t e p p e d  
h g h p S f e w f l o w [ v i ]

Piperiales

A p r i m t r d r f t h p l a t h e l a s D e o t y l  
d e a m l d i n g 3 f m i l e t h e l a r l t a i l f m l y  
( S a i s a e a e ) t h e p e p p e r f a m i l y ( P i p e r a a )  
a n d t h C l r n t l a a c T l p l a n t i a m a n l y  
a k e d f l w r r i t h l i t f a m i l y a m a l l f r a t  
l k p r a d l l k t h e S a u r a e a t h e C l l r a n  
t h a e a i a e v m a l l f a m i l y f n e r n m i  
a l i

T h n p y e r f a m i l y i n l i d e x 1 9 n n e r a a n d 1 4 0 0  
p e n s i g u t t r p i l r g n i l i t h e  
O l d a l t h e N e w W r l d S r a l p e c i h a  
n d e r a l l e e c n m i m p r t a n T h e f r u t f  
P p e r n g r m f M a l a y a a e d i e d a n d g r n l t  
p r d i c m m e c l l l a k p p y e r t h e d b y  
i g n d t m k e w h t p e p p r T h d r e d l t r i e s  
o f P i p c u l b a f t h e E a s t I n d i e a r d e l l  
e d m m e d i n e T h e F r i n i n n u e l e w  
f e l l t m b i e d w i t h t e f r h l a e s f l i p e  
b i t h l e t i p p i e S e B r i t a n i t C l o v n  
P r e r a a l D i c o t y l e d o n F a r F u b r y o p h y t a  
P l a t a m c o o t [ r d a ]

Pipet

P p t r u a l l y m a d e f g l a a d a r e u d a l  
m t e c h i v l y t d e l i v e r a i a t l y k n o w n l  
u m e f l i q u i d r l u t i T l e a t w o g e n r a l  
e t e g i f p i p t v l m t r i o t a n f r s p e t  
a d t h g a d i t d m i n g t y p ( i l l u t r a  
t n ) V l m t r e p p e t a e d m t h f l l w i g  
w a y t l q d k d i f a l t h e m a r k n t h  
t e m a l e t h l u l h d t h e u p p e e n d s g k l y  
l e d w i t h t h e d e x f i n g r n y a d l n g l i q u i d  
w p e d f r m t h u t d f t h e l w r i m t h l e e l  
f l i q u i d n t h t m i a l l o w d t f l l l w i l y  
g u l a t n t h p u e n t h e f i n g u n t l t h e l t  
t m f t h m c u a t n g t o l t m k l j u d  
f i n g g t t h u p m d a l t h p i p t a l



1 m p p b g d d p p  
P p t ( ) V i m t p p e t ( b ) G = t d p p t



lowed to empty freely into the receiving vessel. After 15 sec or the time specified on the pipet for drainage the tip is touched and rotated against the inside of the receiver. The liquid remaining in the tip thereafter is not removed. Volumetric pipets when handled in the described manner will deliver reproducibly a definite amount of liquid or solution.

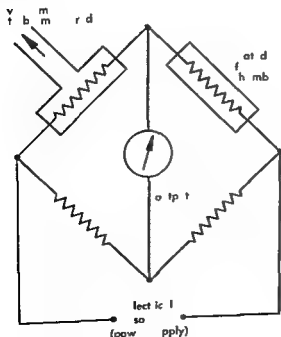
A graduated measuring pipet is used in the same general way except that the volume of liquid delivered can be varied by allowing the liquid to drain from one calibration mark to another. These pipets are usually not as accurate in delivering volume of liquid as are the volumetric type.

For solutions that attack glass pipets made of various plastics are used. See TITRATION VOLUMETRIC ANALYSIS [CEB]

## Pirani gage

A type of instrument used to measure vacuum in the range of 1 micron to a few hundred microns (a micron is the pressure required to support a column of mercury 0.00004 in high). See VACUUM MEASUREMENT.

In the Pirani gage a fine wire filament one of the four electrical resistances forming a Wheatstone bridge circuit is exposed to the vacuum to be measured. Electric current heats the wire; the surrounding gas (vacuum) carries heat away from the wire. At constant pressure (vacuum) the wire quickly reaches an equilibrium temperature. If the pressure rises the gas carries away more heat and the temperature of the wire decreases. Since the resistance of the filament is a function of temperature the electrical balance of the Wheatstone bridge is changed. The output meter is usually a microammeter calibrated in units of microns of pressure.



The calibration depends upon the thermal conductivity of the gas and therefore the calibration is different for different gases. Accuracy is commonly of the order of  $\pm 5\%$  of scale.

The Pirani gage is a relatively simple and rugged instrument widely used both in industrial plants and in laboratories. [BDH HCP]

## Pisces (constellation)

The Fishes in astronomy is a zodiacal constellation appearing in the autumn evening sky. It is the twelfth and last sign of the Zodiac. It is inconspicuous, having no star brighter than the fourth magnitude. But it is an important constellation because the vernal equinox, which marks the beginning of the astronomical year, is now located in it. Its most distinctive feature is a V shaped figure with the fishes' tails toward the point of the V, tied together by a ribbon. The northern fish is poorly defined but the western one is marked with a group of stars forming an irregular pentagon known as the Circlet in Pisces. See CONSTELLATION. [CEB]

## Pisces (zoology)

A term that embraces all fishes and fishlike vertebrates. In early zoological classification fish-like mammals, birds, reptiles, and amphibians were ranked as a class of the vertebrates. As knowledge of fishes increased it became apparent that despite their common possession of gills and fins and their dependence on an aquatic environment not all fishes were closely related. At least five groups of fishes with modern descendants were already established before the tetrapod appeared. Not only are these groups older but some are decidedly more divergent structurally than are the four classes of tetrapods. For these reasons several classes of fishes are now recognized. The number of classes varies; one reputable but extreme classification scheme recognizes eleven classes of fishes.

The primary cleavage in vertebrate classification is that separating the jawless fishes or Agnatha from those vertebrates with jaws, the Gnathostomata. After recognition of this split the name Pisces was commonly restricted to the jawed fishes. When the fish in turn were divided into two or more classes Pisces was further restricted by some authorities to the bony fishes. Another scheme in fishes is a significant of class names to each of the major constituent groups of jawed fishes and use of Pisces as a superclass name. In view of the confusion it seems better to revert to early practice and to employ Pisces as a group name for convenience to embrace all classes of fishlike vertebrates, from jawless fishes to bony fishes. In this sense it has no actual taxonomic status because it cuts across natural classification dividing the gnathostomes and grouping part of them with the agnathans. S. AGNATHA GNATHOSTOMATA.

The Pisces include four well defined groups that are the light of present-day taxonomy.

on a la e the Agnatha or jawless fish the  
m t p msta the Placoderm or arm r d f h e  
own ly a Pale cfo it th Chndr chthye  
or cartil gino f h e and the O t e chthyes  
bonv f h F t r e = arch may demon tr te th  
be d fo further d i n but th i m t i kely to  
v l e Paleoz gr ps Se CHONDRICTHYES  
O TEICHTHYES PLACODERMI

Number 11 recent species Pre ent f h cla i  
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a c atet bulati n f th umb r f l ing pe tes  
Newk d e c t nly b i g d n red othe s  
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r g g f m 18000 t 40000 th an flo t  
i s h e made to r r = at r a nably ac eptable  
pp x m t Th re l t d t that mo t prev  
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Ecology i h e l v n l m t a l l p e r m a n t w a  
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n i m m a d l l k f r m h b e o d  
p e d l l y d e v e l p d m p h l t l s t k  
f i h l d m l k e q a d m e  
d r e p f i h h y e s t h t p o f l g t  
t l k L o n g t l g f e f q z a n d r g e

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F o i h b i t s V t f i h e a r e m r e o r l e c a r  
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i n f o o d h b u t s M a n y f l l a = n u m e r i s l e n d e r  
g i l l r a k e r w t h w l c h t h e y s t r a i n m i c r o o r g a n i s m  
f r o m t h e w a t e r o t h e r s h a e m a i e t e e t l a n d  
t n g l y m e l l j a w t o a n d i n c r u l n g m l l u k s  
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e m p l o y m e c i a l l y d a p t e d t e t l a n d j a w t c r a p e  
v e g t a t n o r m a l l a t t a c h e d n i m l S o m w r a m  
p l c k p a r a t e f o m l a r g e r f i l a n d l a m p r y  
p a a t i e t h e r f i h e

R e p o d i c t e h a b i t s R e p r o d u c t i o n f a l t a r e n o  
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a n d p a e t a l e r e a m e a l l f p e c t r u m - f r m  
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n a t e d a l o n g i n d e p e n d e n t l i n E n r m i l v e m  
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l e s o f m o t p e o p l P e r c a p i t e n m p t n o f  
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a m o n g m r e a t o n a l c i t i e s i n h i g h l y l i z e d  
p e p l e M t e a n c a n d c a r e f h m e a q a r u m  
f i h e p r i d n o c t i s p r o b a b l y n m l e r i g  
n t h m i l l i o s A n o c a t o l w i m m e r t k l l d b y  
h a k s m a n y m o r d e f o m e g a t e a o n t a t e d  
f o m e a t n g p i n u s f i h f l h a n d n m o o s  
f i h t k e a l m t e d t o l l i h m n l i f e a d s u f f e r i n g  
S O I D A T A C R A N I A T A V E R T E B R A T A [ R a t b ]

## Pistachio

A m l l t r e ( P t a i a ) a d i t f r u t T h f r u i t  
i s p o p u l a r l y k n w n a s a n t h t i b t a c a l l y c l a s s  
f e d a a d p



P t h t w g w t h l d f t

lowed to empty freely into the receiving vessel. After 15 sec or the time specified on the pipet for drainage the tip is touched and rotated against the inside of the receiver. The liquid remaining in the tip thereafter is not removed. Volumetric pipets when handled in the described manner will deliver reproducibly a definite amount of liquid or solution.

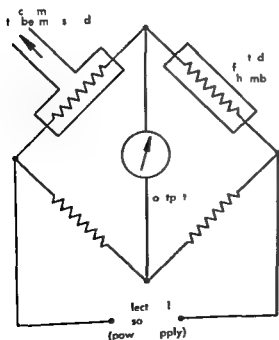
A graduated measuring pipet is used in the same general way except that the volume of liquid delivered can be varied by allowing the liquid to drain from one calibration mark to another. These pipets are usually not as accurate in delivering volumes of liquid as are the volumetric type.

For solutions that attack glass pipets made of various plastics are used. See TITRATION VOLUMETRIC ANALYSIS [CEB]

## Pirani gage

A type of instrument used to measure vacuum in the range of 1 micron to a few hundred microns (a micron is the pressure required to support a column of mercury 0.00004 in. high). See VACUUM MEASUREMENT.

In the Pirani gage a fine wire filament, one of the four electrical resistances forming a Wheatstone bridge circuit, is exposed to the vacuum to be measured. Electric current heats the wire; the surrounding gas (vacuum) carries heat away from the wire. At constant pressure (vacuum) the wire quickly reaches an equilibrium temperature. If the pressure rises, the gas carries away more heat and the temperature of the wire decreases. Since the resistance of the filament is a function of temperature, the electrical balance of the Wheatstone bridge is changed. The output meter is usually a microammeter calibrated in units of microns of pressure.



The calibration depends upon the thermal conductivity of the gas and therefore the calibration is different for different gases. Accuracy is commonly of the order of  $\pm 5\%$  of scale.

The Pirani gage is a relatively simple and rugged instrument widely used both in industrial plants and in laboratories. [BDH HCB]

## Pisces (constellation)

The Fishes in astronomy is a zodiacal constellation appearing in the autumn evening by Pisces is the twelfth and last sign of the Zodiac. It is inconspicuous, having no star brighter than the fourth magnitude. But it is an important constellation because the vernal equinox, which marks the beginning of the astronomical year, now lies in it. Its most distinctive feature is a V-shaped figure with the fishes' tails toward the point of the V, tied together by a ribbon. The northern fish is poorly defined, but the western one is marked with a group of stars forming an irregular pentagon, known as the Circlet in Pisces. See CONSTELLATION [CET]

## Pisces (zoology)

A term that embraces all fishes and fishlike vertebrates. In early zoological classification, fish like mammals, birds, reptiles, and amphibians were ranked as a class of the vertebrates. As knowledge of fishes increased, it became apparent that despite their common possession of gills and fins and their dependence on an aquatic environment, not all fishes were closely related. At least five groups of fishes with modern descendants were already established before the tetrapods appeared. Not only are the groups older, but some are decidedly more divergent structurally than are the several classes of tetrapods. For the reasons, several classes of fishes are now recognized. The number of classes varies; one reputable but extreme classification scheme recognizes eleven classes of fish.

The primary cleavage in vertebrate classification is that separating the jawless fish, or Agnatha, from the vertebrates with jaw, the Gnathostomata. After recognition of this split, the name Pisces was commonly restricted to the jawed fishes. When the fish in turn were divided into two or more classes, Pisces was further restricted by some authorities to the bony fishes. Another scheme in evolution assigns a class name to each of the major constituent groups of jawed fishes, and uses the name Pisces as a superclass name. In view of this confusion, it seems better to revert to early practice and to employ Pisces as a group name for convenience to embrace all classes of fishlike vertebrates, from jawless fish to bony fish. In this sense, it has no actual taxonomic status because it is a non-natural classification, dividing the Agnatha, the teleosts, and the group of cartilaginous fish from the bony fish with the Agnatha. S. AGNATHA, GNATHOSTOMATA.

The Pisces include four well-defined groups that in the light of present taxonomy are recognized as

in s l s s the Agn tha o jawle f i hes the  
- i p m i e th Pla derms = arm ed f i hes  
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o l Pale gr up See CHONDRICHTHYES  
TEICHTHYES PLACODERM!

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g o p a d i m l d e A g n t h 2 f a m l e a  
b u t l l g a a d a p p r m t l y 45 p e c e  
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Ecology F h l n l r t a l l p r m n e n t w a  
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m t r n t m y h p e l a t a h m e t g a n  
t h e l i v i n g n A n t a t w i r a t t e m p e r t e  
b l o w f r e z g h m d e d d p h y l g i a l a d  
j u t m n t f i h f t h d p o m m n l y a r y  
t h e n i g h t u c a d i t h f e m l n g l f i h  
a s t d m a t e i y t h p t m f t h m a l o n  
h r b d y l t h E t I a d i e s m e f i h k p w t h  
r m d d t n d t h e d a t S m  
f h m t u a t t m e l y m l l z A P h i p p i  
g b y M i s t h i t y r e h l g t h f o n l y 1/4 n  
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r p i d t h a l n t h f 60 f t n d 38 f t  
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t e t i l m l A d p p a k e t f d y t  
n t m m n d e l l k f m h b h i  
p o n d t y d l p d m y r h y l t l n T u k  
f h e e l e e d b l k q u n d m  
d e e p f h h t h t h u p f e l g t  
t a l k L o g t l g f f q e t n d g a s

sum f i h e s d e v o l o p a p p e n d a g e t h a t e r v e a h l d  
f a t a s a n d f r c o n c e a l m e n t

Food habits M o t f i l e s a r e m r e o r l c a r  
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g l l a k e r w t h w h i c h t h e y t r a i n m i c r r g a n m  
f r m t h e w a t r t h e r s l a e m a i e t e l l a n d  
t r o n g l y m u c l e d j a w s t o a i d i n c r u b i n g m l l u k s  
o m u t a c e a n B r w e m i l l e r a n d g r a z e r s  
e m p l o y p e a l l y a d a p t e d t e e t h a n j a w t c r a p e  
v g e t a t o n p m a l l a t t a c h d a n i m l S m w r a =  
p l u c k p a r a t i o n l a r g e r f i l e a d l a m p r y  
p a a u z t h e r f i h e

Repr d t i e h a b i t s R e p r d u c t s e h a l i r e n o  
l a r i d a n d f e e d i n g l h a v o r M t f i h e a r e  
o v i p a o a n d a t t r t h i g g l u t n e t i l l d i g  
a n d p r e n a t a l e s r e s i m a l t d p t r u m - f r m  
a p r e p a r e d f i l e f p e b l e s t h r i g h g r a y a l r  
e l r e t r e a t i a l i n u a t i o n o r b e l e m e n t o f a  
m r u p a l p c h o n t h u n d r d e o f t h e m a l e  
p i p e f h V i p a t y n d o v i p a u t y h a e r i g i  
n a t d a l n g n d e p e n d n t l n s m r m o u l y c o m  
p l i c a t e d m d f i c a t n f t h e a n a l f h v e l e e n  
l e d t e f f e c t i n e m i n a t i o n o f m e p e c i e i n  
w h h t h e y u n g a r e b n a l i e

Economics F i h e p l a y a n i m p o r t a n t r l i t h e  
l e s o f m o t p e o p l e P e r c a p i t a c n s i m p t o n o f  
M e r y m o d u c t a p p r m a t e 10 l b a n a l l y t h e  
U n i t e d S t a t l e t t h t f i g u r e a t l y n r e a d i n  
m a r t m a t i o n m n a e a m w h i t o t h e r h i g h  
p o t n f o o d s a a t a p e m i m F i l g i s a w a y f  
i f n m t p r i m t = c l e u r a n d r a k h g h  
a m o g r e c e t o a l a c t i t e i n h g h l y i l r e d  
p e p l e s M i n t e n a n a d a e f l o m e q u r i m  
f i h e p v d e a n a o c i o t p b l y n m b r i n g  
n t h m i l l n A n o c a t n a t w a m m e r k l l e d b y  
s h a k m n y m o r d f m i g u a t r a o n t r i c i e d  
f m e t i n g p o o n o i s f i h f l h a d n o m u s  
f i h t k e a l i m t e d t l l n h u m a l i a n d s u f f e r i g  
S e C H O R D A T A C R A N I T A V E R T E B R A T A [ R M D ]

Pistachio

A m l l t r e e ( P s t a c i a ) n d i t f r u i t T h e f r u i  
p g u l r l y k n w n a n t b u t i b i a n l l y c l a s s  
f i d a a d p e



P t o h n w g w i t h l d f t

Pistachios are native to Asia Minor and are adapted to semiarid condition in the warm temperature climatic zones of the world. Commercial production occurs principally in Turkey, Syria, Iran, Afghanistan and Italy. A few pistachios are grown in California. In Asia Minor the seeds have long been valued as food for man. Annual importations into the United States range from 2000 to 5000 ton. The nuts are eaten salted and roasted and in ice cream and bakery goods. See NUT CROP CULTURE [EFS]

## Pitch

That psychological property of sound characterized by highness or lowness. Pitch varies most directly with the frequency of sound waves and pitch discrimination can be made throughout the frequency range of normal hearing from about 16 to 20,000 cycle per second (cps).

Within the range of frequencies used in the musical scale up to about 5000 cps, pitch perceptions are characterized by a periodicity related to the octave arrangement of the scale. A tone that is doubled in frequency appears to be the same musical note one octave higher. Thus two C notes sound more alike than an adjacent C note and D note in the same octave. Some few individuals possess so-called absolute pitch, the ability to judge accurately the pitch level of a musical tone without reference to other tones.

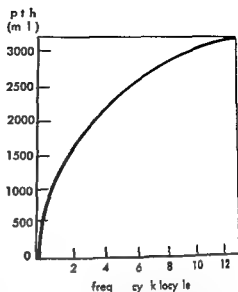
High frequency sounds sometime produce a perceived pitch displaced from their characteristic level to the low pitch range. Such a displaced low pitch is not masked by low frequency tones which would make a similar pitch produced by a tone of correspondingly low frequency.

A numerical scale of pitch has been constructed by the method of fractionation, selecting pitches that appear to be half as high as reference tone and the method of bisection, selecting pitches that appear to fall halfway between two reference tones. The pitch unit was named the mel and a value of 1000 mels was arbitrarily assigned to a tone of 1000 cps.

The pitch of complex sound may depend on various factors. A musical tone composed of a series of harmonics such as 100, 200, 300, 400 cps is perceived as having a pitch corresponding to the fundamental 100 cps. This same pitch is perceived even when the fundamental frequency is filtered out of the stimulus. The pitch apparently is determined by the fact that the wave form recurs 100 times per second even though there is no sound energy at 100 cps.

The pitch of a difference tone corresponds to the difference in frequency of two pure tones presented simultaneously while the summation tone has a pitch corresponding to the sum of their frequencies.

When a noise stimulus is interrupted from 40 to 200 times per second, observers hear a pitch corresponding to the frequency of interruption.

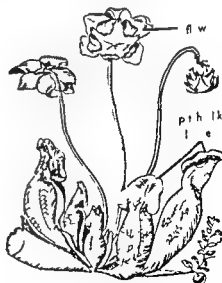


Pitch level of sound of different frequency is expressed in mel. A tone of 1000 cps at a pitch level of 40 dB is above absolute threshold. The pitch level of 1000 mels (After S. S. Stevens and J. Volkman, *The relation of pitch to frequency*, *Am. J. Psychol.* 53(3):329-353, 1940).

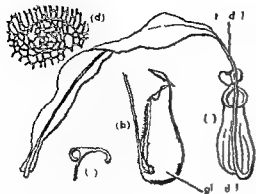
Binaural pitch can be produced by introducing random noise stimulus to the two ears separately with a constant difference in phase at a certain frequency level (200-1600 cps) within the noise. Listeners hear pitchlike sounds corresponding to level of the phase shift. See DEAFNESS HEARING MUICAL ACOUSTIC [K1]

## Pitcher plant

Any member of the pitcher plant family Sarracaceae or the Nepenthes family Nepenthaceae. The emblematic plant, the leafy form of corks or pitchers in which water collects. Insects falling into this water are drowned and digested by enzymes secreted by the cells in the



Sarracenia purpurea pitcher plant



N p th ( ) C m p l t l f w i t h t p i t h ( b ) V  
r l s e c t t h g h p i c h e ( ) S i t h g h t  
m r g f p i t h ( d ) S g l g l d f m i t h l w r  
p r t f p i t h ( f m R D G b b B ) y A E o  
( ) y A p p h B l k s t o 1950

f i b e r p i t h l k t u t u e f i b e r p l a n t T h e  
S a c c a a e d d e d n o 3 g n e a S a  
m t N t h A m c D l g i o  
n r t h C a l f r n d o u t l e r O e g n d H l  
m p h n d m m h g h m u i n n t h n o t h  
e r n p t f c o t h A m r a T h N p t h e f m i l y  
h l y n g u l p t h w h e c r n t h  
O l d W l d t p f m C h a t A s t r a l a f l  
i B r n e o O f t h e p l a n t l m b y t e d r a  
( p l g t s f t h e m d b f i b e l a f ) T h e n d  
f a n l i m a d e l p i t a p i b w h e c p  
t s d d g t e t S e l s r c m o s o l s  
P L A T S S A R ( E N A T E S [ P D s ]

# Pitchstone

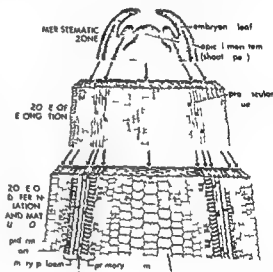
A n t r i g l a w i t h d l p t c h y l t a d g  
a l y b g e e g r y l I t x t m l  
h m m b r y e r y t a l g r w i t h  
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l e d t h b e b o b e d f r m t h d n  
g a l t t h g l a d e l p e d P t h t  
f m e d b p d i n f m t h n k m a t s l  
l l a m g m l d s m t m m n l v  
m l l d k m g n l p r n t l g e d k  
S l c n e o l s K S V o l a C G L A S S

[ C A ]

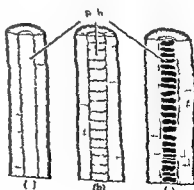
# Pith

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d t l e d i l u d p i t h l t h g h m t r o o t  
l i x l m t e t h t T h p i t h r a y b  
p r n t b n t n t h m d p n d g p o

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T h p i t h r a l e g s t f m a l l c e l l w i t h  
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w e l l d f e d i t i s a l l e d t h e m e d l l y h e t h r  
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m m s t l m e a x e t h e p i t h m a y b e c o m p e d  
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n n e p i t h s e l r n c h y m a t u w l r e a t h e u t e r  
p r n h y m a t I n s t e m s o f m e d i t y l e d n  
p l a t s o r n t o f l e r e h y m a m a y l e i t r  
p r e d w i t h t h e p a n h y m a c h a p i t h i s a l l e d  
d a p h a g m d p i t h ( F g 1 ) I f t h e p r e h m a o f  
l a p e o i t o d r i n g d e v l p m e n t t l l e r e n



F g 1 Z t h t e m f p t f s t m f m  
C l W l d W E L a m B l y d  
O y d 1957



F g 2 T y p f p i t h m h l t s ( ) C t  
( b ) D p h g m d ( ) C h m b d f m e l c  
P l t f m y p t e H l 1955

chyma plates (diaphragms) alternate with hollow zones. Such a pith is said to be chambered. In many stems the entire pith becomes hollow except at the nodes the nodal diaphragms are sclerenchyma or parenchyma and in monocotyledons may contain vascular bundles.

**Shape of pith.** The shape of the pith in stems of lower vascular plants and in roots of various plants is nearly cylindrical. In stems of higher vascular plant the pith is more or less angled or stellate in cross section. The shape is often characteristic of the plant groups since it depends on phyllotaxy. In oaks for example the pith is 5 angled and in alder 3 angled. In stems with cylinders of vascular bundles the panels of ground tissue between bundles often are called medullary rays or pith rays. In stems in which the vascular bundles occur in a more complex arrangement than a simple cylinder the limit of the pith is indefinite and when a major cylinder of vascular bundles can be distinguished the internal bundles are called medullary bundles.

**Contents of pith.** Ergastic materials often are stored in some or all cells of the pith. Secretory cell or secretory canal or laticifers may be present. In most stems with considerable secondary growth the pith dies with the formation of heart wood although the perimedullary zone may remain alive. In other stems the pith may consist partly or largely of dead cells by the end of the first year. See *ANGIOSPERMAE DICOTYLEDONALES FILICALES LEAF (BOTANY) LYCOPODIALES MONOCOTYLEDONALES PARENCHYMA PFRICYCLE POLYPODIA ROOT (BOTANY) SCLERENCHYMA SECRETORY STRUCTURES PLANT STEEL STEM (BOTANY)* [H W BL.]

## Pitot tube

An instrument also called an impact tube that measures the stagnation pressure of a flowing fluid. Stagnation (also called impact or total) pressure is the pressure that would be obtained if the fluid were brought to rest isentropically. When measuring total pressure the static pressure of a primary sensing element mounted on a suitable support pressure connecting line and a pressure indicating device. Normally the connecting lines and indicating device are considered secondary elements and are not treated as part of the pitot tube. See *MANOMETER*.

**Application.** The pitot tube is used primarily to obtain fluid velocity, total energy, and measured temperature of impact or stagnation pressure  $P_2$ , static pressure  $P_1$ , and velocity of the fluid of density  $\rho$ . Then for incompressible (low speed) flow

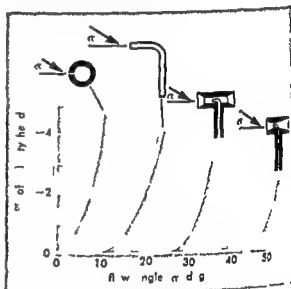
$$\frac{P_2}{\rho} = \frac{P_1}{\rho} + \frac{V^2}{2}$$

For incompressible flow the total energy is expressed by Bernoulli's theorem (see *BERNOULLI'S THEOREM*). For compressible flow the total energy can

be expressed in terms of impact pressure  $P_2$ , static pressure  $P_1$ , and Mach number which is related to velocity.

Pitot tubes of many shapes and sizes have been used for a wide variety of applications. A pressure-ended circular tube pointing upstream will measure true total pressure at subsonic speed and will measure the true total pressure existing behind a normal shock wave across its nozzle upstream.

**Accuracy.** Depending on design, tube can be made insensitive to flow misalignment up to 45°. Illustrated. Another error arises when a pitot tube is in a total pressure gradient. The effective center of the tube is then displaced from the geometric center toward the region of higher total pressure. Other error will arise when dealing with turbulent or pulsating flow because of the pressure averaging effect of the tube.



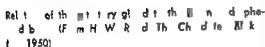
Effect of flow angle of pitot tube with streamlines on accuracy of measurement.

In certain flow regions conventional pitot tube response must be corrected to obtain velocity accurately. One such region is that of low Reynolds numbers where the viscous effect of the fluid predominates. Another such region is that of high Knudsen number (high speed and free molecular flow) which is associated with measurements in rarefied gas. See *KNUDSEN NUMBER REYNOLDS NUMBER* [L N K].

**Bibliography.** R. C. Folch, *Review of the Pitot Tube Trans.* ASME 81:457-1460, 1956. I. M. Milne-Thomson, *Theoretical Aerodynamics* 1930.

## Pituitary gland

The pituitary gland is an endocrine organ because it secretes into the blood many essential metabolic products. The gland is located in the hypophysis (situated in all vertebrates) and is intimately related to the hypothalamus, a portion of the brain from which its hormones are secreted. The human gland weighs about 0.5 g.



lodged in the elliptical cavity a deep depression in the  
plate. Although considerable amount of  
vertical enlargement among the vertical re-  
gions of the upper limb to the  
terminal distal posteriorly.

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 a a n i g r w i t h o f l e c t d r m f m t h B o  
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## ANATOMY

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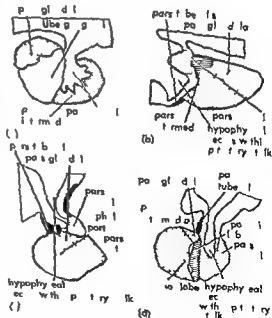
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l bee m t p m n r g t n h gh  
f m c e m f th p t l we v r b te

has been borrowed from mammalian anatomy the mammal angle will be described first

**Mammals** Mammary glands usually exhibit a prominent anterior (paraglandular) and posterior lobe (pars intermedia and pars neuralis) separated by a narrow cleft. A pars tuberalis is not usually present. The glandular tissue is surrounded by a stalk. Precipitation of the four components is the same. The glandular tissue is present in the neural stem cell of the third ventricle. Between the glandular and the neural tissue is the intermediate layer of the posterior wall (intermediate) which is the last part of the stem cell. The stem cell is a very small and because it limits are not always sharply defined it may be and linguistable as a morphological entity. It is reduced or absent in adult mammals. In the armadillo and Indian elephant. The tubular is absent with greatly reduced in mammals and quantitatively identified as a testis.

Birds In bird th gla d c n s t pr d m n ntly  
of a gla dular ex h b t ng two d t n c t r g n the  
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glandul r s A r e l a t i v l y m a l l n e u r a l s p a r a t e l  
f r m t h g l a n d u l a r i b y a d i t i n t c n n e c t v e t i u e  
h e a t h h o p a i n t e r m e d i a o r r d s l u m e n o c  
u s T h e a w e l l - d e l o p e d t u b e s l j

Reptiles The posterior part of the anterior is a elongated structure attached to the posteriorly (chelonians) The median part constitute the major part of the glabella and helminths) It may be laterally modified into the intermediate attachment of the nervous system



Pittsburgh, Pa. (UPI) - The Pittsburgh Courier has been ordered to publish a story about the death of a Negro man, who was shot by a white man, in the city of Pittsburgh.



in which the stalk cavity often ends in diverticula. No tuberalis has been described in adult snakes and some lizard but projections of the intermedia in turtles and alligators have been so designated. Apparently tuberales are present in the embryos of all. The lumen persists in some, disappears in others.

**Amphibians** In amphibians the pituitary is flattened against the under surface of the menencephalon. The recess within the short stalk is broadly open to the gland. As a result the neuralis, a plicated crescent-shaped lobe is exhibited in a primitive condition as a specialized region of the brain floor. The glandularis constitutes the caudal major part of the gland. At its anterodorsal boundary a wedge of basophilic cell usually identified as the intermedia intervenes between the glandularis and the neuralis. There is no lumen. The tuberales of young animals consist of relatively large paired club-shaped appendages occasionally detached and extending forward on the under surface of the brain. They vary from  $1/4$  as large as the intermedia to five times its size.

**Fishes** In bony fishes the gland varies greatly. The glandularis is relatively small but in most fishes (except lungfishes) a prominent *Übergangsteil* of characteristic morphology and doubtful homology lies between the glandularis and the intermedia. The latter may be deeply penetrated by processes of the neuralis. Although a tuberalis has been described in numerous fishes the homology of the parts so named is questionable. A ventral lobe hanging by a stalk from the intermedia of elachians has been so designated. A lumen is absent in teleosts and present in elachian. In the primitive *Polypterus* a lumen within the glandularis opens to the oral cavity. The gland in lungfishes strikingly resembles that of amphibians. However a secondary lumen sometimes separates intermedia and glandularis and the latter is occasionally anterior in position.

In cyclostomes the neuralis is scarcely distinguishable as an incipient thickening of the brain floor under and again to which lie the intermedia. The glandularis and *Übergangsteil* lie anteriorly in tandem with the intermedia. No par-tuberalis or lumen occurs. In hagfish the embryonic components remain partially separate failing to produce a discrete gland. [C.C.A.]

### HISTOLOGY

The pituitary gland consists of two embryologically and histologically distinct divisions: the glandular division or adenohypophysis and the neural division or neurohypophysis.

In most vertebrates above cyclostomes and fishes the adenohypophysis consists of three distinct regions: the anterior lobe or pars distalis, the intermediate lobe or pars intermedia and the par-tuberalis. In cyclostomes and fishes the adenohypophysis is partially divided by connective tissue septa into three histologically distinct zones but the homology between these zones and the parts

anterior intermedia and tuberalis of higher vertebrates have not been established.

**Anterior lobe** The anterior lobe is the largest subdivision of the adenohypophysis. It consists of irregular cords and masses of glandular cells supported by a network of connective tissue and separated by wide sinuoids. Two main cell types, chromophobes and chromophiles are distinguished. The chromophobes have few if any granules in their cytoplasm, stain poorly with the conventional stains. The chromophiles contain numerous granules and are classified on the basis of staining reactions of these granules into acidophiles (alpha cells) and basophiles (beta cells) respectively. While both types of granule are amphoteric the acidophiles stain intensely with acid dyes at low pH and only moderately with basic dyes at high pH while basophiles stain intensely with basic dyes at high pH and poorly with acid dyes at low pH. Two different types of acidophiles and three different types of basophiles have been distinguished in many of the higher vertebrates by such criteria as staining reactions, shape, location and response to endocrine disturbances. The acidophiles are known as fuchsinophiles and orangeophiles respectively. The fuchsinophiles appear to be largely restricted to the rostral zone while the orangeophiles are distributed throughout the lobe. Differential hormone assays have led to the tentative conclusion that the fuchsinophiles elaborate prolactin and the orangeophiles the growth hormone. Since all basophiles stain with periodic acid-Schiff reagent (PAS) it is generally felt that they elaborate the glycoprotein hormones the gonadotropin and thyrotrophin. Two types of gonadotroph or delta cells and a thyrotroph or beta cell have been described. However some doubt exists as to whether there are several different types of acidophiles and basophiles or whether the tinctorial differences are due to variations in granule content.

In cyclostomes and fishes chromophobic and chromophilic cells have been described but they differ somewhat from those of higher vertebrates in distribution and staining characteristics.

Mitoses are rarely seen in the anterior pituitary. However around intermediate stage have been described between chromophobes and acidophiles on the one hand and basophiles on the other. Chromophobes are generally looked upon as reserve cells which give rise to chromophilic or actively secreting cells. In the rat two types of chromophobes have been described. While most differ little in general outline and staining reaction it seems to have been generally inferred that a particular chromophobe gives rise to one type of chromophilic only.

**Blood supply** The muscular floor of the anterior lobe is lined by a thin muscular layer of retrochordal cells. Perivascular interstitial space is rostral and on the ventral side. The thin lamina propria is applied to the glandular cells and to the sinusoidal blood vessels in the space. The space is lined by a thin layer of

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PHYSIOLOGY

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performed at the proper time (6) blanching of the skin in fishes amphibians and reptiles due to impairment of the integumentary pigment cells (7) profound defects in the metabolism of carbohydrates proteins and fats hypophysectomized animals are unusually ensitive to insulin the blood sugar tends to diminish and the glycogen stores are depleted rapidly during fasting the loss of nitrogen from the body indicates excessive protein breakdown and the catabolism of fats is diminished See METABOLIC DISORDERS

The above effects of hypophysectomy are due to the absence of hormones from the anterior and intermediate lobes Ablation of only the posterior lobe produces much milder defects Among mammalian species the only profound effect resulting from postlobectomy is an excessive loss of water through the kidneys or diabetes insipidus this condition may be transient or permanent depending on the specie and the manner of performing the operation There are cogent reasons for believing that certain hypothalamic nuclei with their fiber tracts must be considered together with the posterior lobe per se as constituting a functional unit Since the hormones extractable from the posterior lobe are probably neurosecretions originating in the hypothalamus it is apparent that postlobectomy may not completely and permanently eliminate these secretions from the system See HYPOPHYSIS

**Anterior pituitary** The anterior pituitary produces at least six principle five trophic hormones and a growth hormone The trophic hormones directly control to some degree the functional capacity of another endocrine tissue There are three gonadotrophins which regulate the endocrine secretions of the gonads adrenocorticotrophin (ACTH) which conditions the secretion of adrenocortical steroids and thyrotrophin (TSH) which influence the formation of thyroid hormones While the growth hormone does promote growth it exhibits a great variety of other metabolic effects See HORMONES ADENOHYPOPHYSAL

The three gonadotrophins are follicle stimulating hormone (FSH) luteinizing hormone (LH) and luteotrophin (lactogenic hormone) The main action of FSH in the female is to promote growth of the ovarian follicle up to the point of ovulation in the male it stimulates the seminiferous tubule and maintain production of sperm LH cooperates with FSH during the final stages of follicular development the two hormones promoting the secretion of estrogen and causing ovulation then LH and luteotrophin stimulate the formation of luteal tissue and thus promote the secretion of progesterone In the male LH stimulate the interstitial tissue of the testis and thereby increase the output of androgen It is clear that FSH and LH have equally important role in regulating both male and female sexual function Both hormones are glycoprotein and have been prepared in highly purified form See OVARY TESTIS

**Luteotrophin** This hormone acts in the maintenance of the corpora lutea once they are formed Perhaps the main action of this gonadotrophin in mammal is to initiate and maintain lactation acting on the fully developed mammary gland it stimulates the secretion of crop milk in pigeons and initiates broodiness in certain peccaries Luteotrophin is the first pituitary hormone to be isolated in pure form it is a protein having a molecular weight of around 30 000 See LACTATION

**Chorionic gonadotrophins** The chorionic gonadotrophins having anterior pituitarylike effect are secreted by the placenta Two such substances have been isolated they are serum gonadotrophin (PM-SG) of pregnant mares and chorionic gonadotrophin (HCG) of humans PM-SG elicits action which are comparable to a mixture of pituitary gonadotrophins but it has not been possible to separate it into fractions like those of the pituitary The main action of HCG is on the corpus luteum or on the interstitial cells of the testis While both PM-SG and HCG are glycoprotein they appear to be chemically different from FSH LH and luteotrophin Gonadotrophins of placental origin are abundant in the blood and urine of pregnant women the blood of pregnant mares and in the urine of patients suffering from certain genital tumors

**Adrenocorticotrophin** When adrenocorticotrophin stimulates the adrenal cortex it accelerates the secretion of adrenal steroid It returns to normal the atrophic cortices of hypophysectomized animals ACTH preparations can be bioassayed on the basis of their ability to maintain the weight of adrenals of hypophysectomized rats or their capacity to cause depletion of a corbic acid and cholesterol from the adrenals of hypophysectomized subjects It should be stressed that ACTH peptides exert a great variety of extra adrenal action There is increasing evidence that all the pituitary trophic hormones produce metabolic alterations by acting on tissues other than their target glands

ACTH has been isolated as a protein with a molecular weight of around 20 000 other findings indicate ACTH activity resides in much smaller molecules (peptides) which are several times more potent by weight than the original protein ACTH It is possible that in the gland the peptides are adsorbed on or combined with cellular protein See ADRENAL GLAND

**Thyrotrophin** The normal structure and function of the thyroid gland in hypophysectomized animals is maintained by thyrotrophin TSH is a small protein having a molecular weight of approximately 10 000 it has been obtained in highly active form but has not yet been purified A dynamic balance appears to be established between the secretion of TSH by the pituitary and the titer of thyroid hormone in the blood but thyroid control seems external See THYROID GLAND

**Growth hormone** Growth hormone is a simple protein having a molecular weight of about 4 000

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performed at the proper time (6) blanching of the skin in fish amphibians and reptiles due to impairment of the integumentary pigment cells (7) profound defects in the metabolism of carbohydrates proteins and fat hypophysectomized animal are usually sensitive to insulin the blood sugar tends to diminish and the glycogen stores are depleted rapidly during fasting the loss of nitrogen from the body indicates excessive protein breakdown and the catabolism of fats is diminished See METABOLIC DISORDERS

The above effect of hypophysectomy are due to the absence of hormone from the anterior and intermediate lobe Ablation of only the posterior lobe produce much milder defect Among mammalian species the only profound effect resulting from pituitectomy is an excessive loss of water through the kidneys or diabetes insipidus this condition may be transient or permanent depending on the species and the manner of performing the operation There are cogent reasons for believing that certain hypothalamic nuclei with their fiber tract must be considered either with the posterior lobe proper as constituting a functional unit Since the hormones extractable from the posterior lobe are probably neurosecretion originating in the hypothalamus it is apparent that pituitectomy may not completely and permanently eliminate the secretions from the system See HYPOTHALAMUS

**Anterior pituitary** The anterior pituitary produces at least in principle five trophic hormones and a growth hormone The trophic hormone directly control to some degree the functional capacity of another endocrine tissue There are three gonadotrophins which regulate the endocrine secretion of the gonad adrenocorticotrophin (ACTH) which conditions the secretion of adrenocortical steroid and thyrotrophin (TSH) which influence the formation of thyroid hormone While the growth hormone does promote growth it exhibits a great variety of other metabolic effect See HORMONE ADENOHYPHYSAL

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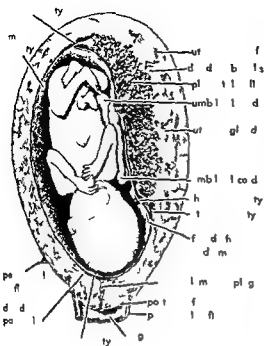


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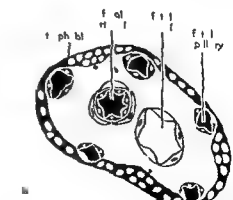
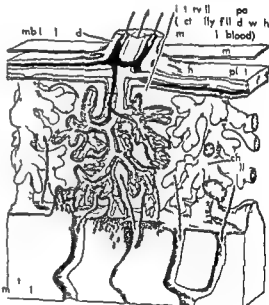


Fig 2 ( a ) D g m o f b l k m o d f m t f h m p l t ( b ) E l g m t f u t d o f b c h

## Pituitary gland disorders

Any pathology of the pituitary gland the master regulatory organ of the endocrine system. Many hormones which directly influence tissue metabolism are elaborated by the pituitary but more important certain of these hormone exert a control on other endocrine or target glands such as the thyroid adrenals and gonad. The pituitary is actually a double gland the anterior portion arising from an evagination of the roof of the mouth and the posterior lobe developing as a downgrowth of modified neural tissue from the hypothalamus. The two lobes come together in a bony depression located behind the optic chiasma at the base of the brain. See PITUITARY GLAND.

The most common pituitary disorders can be grouped into two categories those in which symptoms result from mechanical changes in the gland and those in which hormonal imbalances are produced. Hemorrhages tumor formation and inflammatory changes may cause symptoms by virtue of their direct effects. Hormonal dysfunction although frequently caused by neoplasia may arise in a grossly unaltered gland yet have pronounced effects upon other tissues. See HORMONE TUMOR.

The best known examples of anterior lobe dysfunction are the cases of gigantism and dwarfism which result from either hyper or hyposecretion of growth hormones during childhood. In adults hypersecretion of the growth hormone results in acromegaly marked by the appearance of enlarged jaws hands and feet and other change.

Hypopituitarism indicates a decreased output of pituitary hormones and like hypersecretion may involve one or more or all of the endocrine secretions. Cases of Simmonds disease follow loss of all secretion and are characterized by a general wasting and secondary insufficiency of the adrenal thyroid and gonadal glands because of lack of tropic stimulation. Adult women are affected twice as frequently as men and the clinical course may be rapid or may be prolonged over a period of years depending upon the nature of the pathologic process causing the glandular deficiency.

Deficiency of gonadotropic hormones those which stimulate either the testes or ovaries may result in Froehlich's syndrome. This is marked by excessive obesity of the female type failure of development of secondary sexual characteristics and sexual dysfunction. In the male cases malfunction of other parts of the pituitary or hypothalamus is probably responsible for the obesity.

The most important though uncommon disease of the posterior pituitary is diabetes insipidus. In these patients a deficiency of the antidiuretic hormone permits water to pass through the renal tubules without proper reabsorption. As a result there is often a tremendous urinary output some times as much as 20-30 quarts or more of urine a day.

Most of the pituitary disorders mentioned as well as those which are less common or complex in

nature result from injury to or tumors of pituitary tissue. Injury may follow trauma inflammation, vascular damage or the development of cysts. Frequently the cause of hypersecretion is the overactivity of a benign or malignant tumor both however may be asymptomatic. [E.C.S.]

## pK

The logarithm (to the base 10) of the reciprocal of the equilibrium constant for a specified reaction under specified conditions (for example of concentration and temperature). pK values are often more convenient to tabulate and use than the equilibrium constants themselves. The value of  $K$  for the dissociation of the  $\text{HSO}_4^-$  ion in aqueous solution at 25°C is 0.0102 mole/liter. The logarithm  $\log 0.0086 = -2 = -1.991$ , pK is therefore +1.991. The choice of algebraic sign although arbitrary results in positive values for most dissociation constants applicable to aqueous solution. The concept of pK is especially valuable in the study of solutions. See EQUILIBRIUM CHEMICAL EQUILIBRIUM IONIC pH. [T.V.]

## Placentation

The intimate association or fusion of a tissue or organ of the embryonic stage of an animal to its parent for physiological exchange designed to promote the growth and development of the young. enables the young retained within the body or tissue of the mother to respire acquire nourishment and eliminate wastes by bringing their blood streams into close association but never into direct connection (Fig. 1). Placentation characterizes the early development of all mammal except the egg laying duckbill platypus and puny eater. It occurs in some species of all other orders of vertebrates except the birds. In fact in certain sharks and reptiles it is almost as well developed as in mammals. A few examples are also known among invertebrates (*Peripatus* certain tunicates and insects).

**Placental modifications.** With few exceptions the fetal structures used to establish placental relationships with the mother are modifications of organs present in kindred egg laying (oviparous) species. In the fishes sharks and rays and amphibians the membranes include gill filaments the tail the pericardium and the primitive yolk sac (mid and adjacent ventral body wall). The essential placental modifications of all these are increased surface area and as a result intimate contact a highly arcularized and often secretory area between the mother. In fishes this latter is usually variable in sharks and rays the uterus is amplexant the uterine skin. Skin gill attachment is unique to certain oviparous South American fish. A the eggs are extruded they are fertilized by maternal plasma on the back as in *Pipra* and *Aplocheilichthys* on the back as in *Nototriton*. Here they come embedded in highly vascular compartments and receive both oxygen and nutrients from the mother. Flood stream. [E.C.S.]

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l i the u p p e r j a w D s a l l y a t h l a l l y a d m a l  
h e l d m p o e d f g l r o l m e d a n u n  
p r d n d p i d l i a l p l a t f b n p o t c i e d  
t h n u o c r n m i a l s k e l e t o n and b a n h l  
h a m b The c a l s k l e t n p r h p t h r o g h  
p i n e o f i m t l e c r t l a g n s e o d i  
t n d e c g u t f a l r i b e p r e r v e d r  
t h f i t t e r e m a m o t i m p l i t u n d e  
t o r d I f w e r p a r t a l d h d a l s f i c i o s  
f r e v d n e f i t h m a n d b l a h m a y  
r t h o d e The p d f i t n s e l t e d  
n the q u d t a e f i t h u p p j a w d the  
a r t i l a d y m p h y s e l r g n f i t h l w e  
E c h f i t h p m r y u p p e a d l w e r y w e l m e n t s  
p p t d g l p a r f o p p g b n A d a p t e d  
f r e t h h n g o a l i k h r n g a t o  
t h e l m t w e r n t e d e d s b i t n e d  
t e g w l n l a g d r g i b e f i t h n d d  
l i n d p l a y i g n a m e l d n t l a s a n d c l  
m f d t a l l k r e p c a d a u g t s  
t h m m s o f t g u d a t e a n d t l r o f i  
t f the j a g t h m e t a t t a c h  
m t p b l y w t h m d f i d e l m e t f the  
e r d l r h T h f i f a t o m f i t h  
p l d m m p h y l i p e f i w a t c l a  
t n w t h b n m y b s l a t e d w i t h a  
u p e l y m d b l a d e t t i f b y  
f n g l i l i t t d l p r a u l p r t S  
4 r n n A n t r o n

Th t a m a t h f the ephali held  
m p o d f m e d a p d a d p d i a t e l  
l m n t T h e d m l l a n t d b  
l t h l p p n g t d i g h t l y t i k g  
d t t T h b k l m t m p h l n  
p i n d f t t t h k l t l h u l d r  
p d l f m d d b y f h d d s r l y  
t l y d f i t d l p m a t h f i t h d  
p h d m l o c k A m g l e e l e s t w l l a t h  
r l d r r a t l t f m a t n u

sh e l d o v e r the b a c k d e a n d e n t e r of the t r u l y  
l n the l a t e r y o u g r f m s i t m a y b e o m e v a r i u l y  
m d f i l n d r e d c e d o i t e w i t h c o m p l e t l e s  
f c n n e c t i o n b e t w e e n the l r a l a n d e n t r a l p a r t  
a n d v e n of t h t p i a l m t l a r t i u l a t n w i t h  
h a d a m o r T h b o d y a n l t a i l b e h n d t h e t r n k  
r m r s g e n e r a l l y f i h k e a n d m a y l e e t f e r  
s c a l e d o r n l e d T h e i n t e r n a l a x i a l s k e l t n l  
k n o w n a d e q u a t e l y i n o n l y a f e w f o r m l t h e  
a r t h o d e C c s t e u s t h e n o t c l r d w a s p e r t e n t  
a d e x t e n d e d t h t p f t h e t e r e a l a u d a l  
f i n I n a d d i t i o n s e g m e n t a l c o n d e n t n s o f b n v  
t u r e a l d o r s l e u r l a n d v e n t r l h e m a l  
a c u a l a O n e r t w o m e d i n d t a l f i n w e p r e  
e t s u p p o r t e d a t r n l l y b y r y T h e h y p c h d l  
l b of the c a u d a l f i n p r e u m e d to b e s m a l l O f  
p a i r e d f i n p e t r l s a n d p e l c e s w e r e g e r a l l y  
p r e n t T h e p e c t r a l a p p e n d a g a w r of v a r i a l l  
f o m A p a i of f i x e d o r m o a b l e s p i n e m a y a l n  
p r o j e t i r m t h s e d e s of t h e t h o r a s a r m r i n the  
p o s t u m f i t h s e f i n s I n a r t h r o d i the f i x e d p i e s  
b e c a m e p r g e i l y r e d u c d s t r o u g h g e l o g u  
t i m e a n d t h e f u n t o n w s g r a d u a l l y r e p l a c e d l y  
t r p o r t n a t e l y l a r g e r a d l a r g e r m l f i n w i t h  
t e r n l r a y s r i c u l a t a g a n a p r i m a r y c a t i l g  
n u h o l d r g i r d l e u g l y a c i a t e d w i t h the  
d e r m a t r n k s a m o r

The Placoderm f m a n e t r o d i n r y g r o u p of  
f i s h s w h o r e m a r k a b l y d i r e c a d a p t a t i o n l i f e  
n b t h r e h n d m a n w a i r s m a k a n y p l y t i c  
n t t y r t a t t o n s d i f f i c u l t l t h e p e n i t t i of  
k n w l d g t h y c o l y b e e g a r d d s n e a r l y  
a b r a n t m b l a g of a r m o d b a c k e d a i m a l  
w h r e m e m b l a c e s to a c n t h d i a n h o d r i h t y  
i n a n d e a l y o t e h t h y i n f i h e r w e a h e r t a g e  
f o m a m m o n e a l y P a l z a n c e s t a l s t c k f  
j a w d e t b e n S e P A L A E O P O N D Y L O D E S  
S T R G O S E L A C H I I ( D H D )

## Plague

A n t i f e t o d e a s e of m a n a n d o d e n t s e x t n g  
a p n e u m n i d b b i c p l a g e a n d a e d t y  
t h b a l l s P s t e l l a p e s t s l w i l d r d t s t h  
d e s i k n w n a s y l t p l g u P l a g a  
t n m t d f o m d e t i o d e t a d f o m f e t  
t m a n b y the f l a ( Y p s y l l h p s ) T h e d s  
h b e e n k n o w n m the t h d m t u r y f r  
t p n d m s d e p i d m e s u h a the B l a k  
O t h n 1630 ( M l n ) n 166 ( L d o n ) a n d n  
1721 ( M r l l e s ) A l x a n d e r Y n d s c o r d  
t h c o f t h d e a s e n 1894 d n g a w r l d  
w i d e u t h a k n the 1890

I n t h n a m a l b o d y the b l l u s i g a m n e g a  
t n n m o t l a n d a s h r t m d c o d r a  
l a g d f e t y p a n n h p l t s r r o u d e d  
b y a l u m e l y o n e l f T h a r b i o  
g n m g r w a w e l l b u t l w l y o m e d m t i  
g y t n d b l o o d a t 37 C t h t m e r j u e d  
f l l d i n n b e g b u t 4 h u G l u o e  
g l a t e f u e t e b t a c l a t e r f m t e d  
w i t h u t p o d t f g T h l i t y t o f m n t  
g l y r l a b a c t e r i c f t i v a e t e of  
P m r n d a s n a d n d t m n g the p



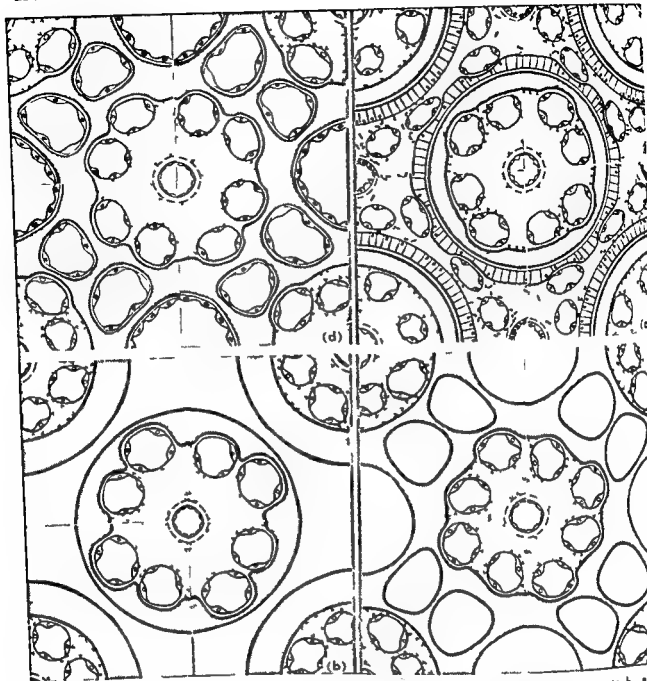


Fig 3 Schemata of four different types of placenta (a) Epitheliochorial (labyrinthine) type (b) Endotheliochorial (c) Hemochorial (d) Hemochorial (labyrinthine) type

bea (a) e of o ly two rode t kn wn to h e type (c) Hemochor l (laby thne) e ample t od t ma y ect es ta s (d) H m h (llo) ample m at ape and m l

the two blood streams. On this basis the human placenta is hemochorial, that is, the maternal blood is in direct contact with the chorionic trophoblast. The placenta of the dog is endotheliochorial, in which the maternal blood is separated from the chorion by the maternal capillary endothelium. Other conditions are epitheliochorial, syndemiochorial, hemoendothelial, and endotheliochorial.

The physiology of interchange through the placental membrane is a fertile field in present day research. Although simple physical diffusion and osmosis are factors, it is now known that probably of greater importance are active membrane transport mechanisms. The transport through the placental separation membrane is work done as the

result of energy released within the protoplasmic layer of the membrane itself.

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### Placodermi

A large and ancient assemblage of Paleozoic fish usually categorized as a zoological class appeared only slightly later than the Acanthopterygii. The Placodermi constitute the second oldest group of primitive jawed vertebrates, and finally their name with many other kinetoplacoderm are characterized by the development of a complex bony armor.

Distribution and varieties. S somewhat m r th n  
o eth rd of the es ths la d arc o c p ed by  
pl W th il pti n of s e t athed Ant  
aret a a h e t t e t n t l a t i o n m a j r  
x p a n e f m o o t h l d n a d d t o n m e n s  
small r area The h e l p l n i No th Am r c  
So th Ame a n d Eu a a l e t th c o n t n t l  
t w t h e r t n i n s r a c h i s o t h e A t l n t i  
Th m o t x t e p l a f A f r c a c o p y m u h  
f t h S h a d e h u t h n t o t h C o n  
B n M u h f A t r a l s m t h w t h l y t h e  
e t e r n m a r g i l a k n g p l s i r a n S e T r a i n  
A E A S W Q L U W I D E

f t h t p p o h t f l a t e s w h i l e n o t  
r o t t u t e m r p o t n f t w o l d  
p l i M t m m n l y t h e y c l n l w l y  
f l m r g t h l e t f m a j e  
v t m S m c u p t h l l r f m l d b  
w h t n i t r a m d p o i n h a c c u e d  
The m o r t y f p l m h s d t n l y  
r e g l n e f a f m a h f a l l e y u t  
t a g b y t r m s o f e g u l r o s i o a n d d e p o  
t b y o n e t i g c

P l a s m t m d e s g t i b y t l e t  
t n a w h i t h e y r l n m o n p e c h  
t l p l n i n y t r p f m o t h l a d g e t  
t t h h o l t h u g h g r o l v y t h t m r s  
o l t r r t r e d t h p l n t h t w a f m r l y  
g t o t h t h l l w a b o t t m A n x a m p l e  
t h S o t h A t l t a d G l m r g n f t h U i d  
t t ( e C A S T A L A D O N I S C O A T A L L I )  
I n t r m t e p l a l b t w n m u i n r g e  
a d b a p l n a o s d d b h h n d  
g h f d U p l n d p l a i m e t m l o l y  
t r m d p l a t e l i t h g h l e t o r i l t  
w l l a b o e i g h o r u i e w h l l w i a i  
p l a e t h l y g e a l l d t t l y  
b l w d j c e t l a d  
P l r l o o m t m e l h d d g  
t t h e p t h a t h e p d e d t h e i t  
t e f e f a t T h d f f c e d  
d b l w

O r i g i n T h i t f p l t r a n g l y  
v d t l r t a t r d m a e f t h r o l  
d d p t l y m r t h f o c t h d e  
f r m t h r t i l l T h m t x t a f  
p l i n h t h f t r o N t h A m r  
t h t f r i w t E r g n a l l y p t  
h h h x p r d t h g m r r  
t h a l w b d p g f t h r t e l  
p r d f g e o l g a l h i T h g h o t h t t m e  
t h g r i l s e h b a b l s m i  
l a l a t l y b d u e d u f a C e r t d  
i d g t l u p l d p l i f r l d  
s o t h e t f A f a d r B l h f  
f e e d m d a t g a l p l f i l t g l g t m  
b t h t t b m b j e c t d e d e p a l l y e t  
t g

M n p l f l e x t e t h w h b  
f r m e d m r w h t l d f m a t t n l l  
b e e n t M t f i t l r p r t d p s e d  
w e e t f t t w h h a b p t l l y  
f l l m o o t h t d d p o t f d b r r r d

n b y t r m s f m t h e u r r o u n d i n g m o u n t a i n E x  
a m p l e f c h p l a n s a e t h e C e n t r a l V l e y f  
C a l f m a t h P P l a n o f n r l e n l y t h e p l n  
o f H u n g a r y h e M e o p t a m p l a i n t h e T a r i m  
I l n f e n t r l A a n d t h e I n d o - A n g e l i c p l a n  
f n r t h r n I n d a a n d P a k i t n

# REGIONAL SURFACE CHARACTER

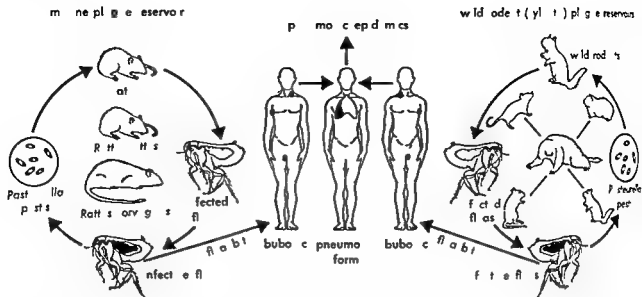
The u r f a c e f a t u r e s f p l m r e u l t m a n l f o m  
l o c l r o n a l n d d e p u s i o n a l a c t i v i t y i n r e l a  
t e l y r t g l g t m e E a c h o f t h m a j r  
g r d t n l a g n t s - r u n i g w a t r g l a l i c e n d  
t h e w i n d - f o d u t o w n c h a r a c t e r i s t i c f  
f a t r d n y g v e e c t i o n l p l a i n t e r r a i n  
h r a t e d p e d m i n n l y b y f e a t u r e t y p c a l f  
p a t u l a a g n t

Features associated with stream erosion Val  
l e y s a d t h e d i d b e t w e n t h e m h a r c t e r i z e  
p l a i n c u l p t r e d l a g e l b y t e a m e r i n S u r  
f a a e u s u a l l y r e g u l a r r a t h r t h a n f l a t b u t d i s  
f e r a m o n g t h m e l e s i n u f o r m a n g e m  
n t a n d p a c i n g o f t h v a l l e y s S i n c t r e a m  
e d d p l a i n s a r e f a r m r e w i d e p r e a d t h a n a n y  
t h e r c l a t h s d i f f e r e n c e a r e p e c a l l y i g  
i f a t n d f e q u e n t l y n u n t e d

The i p t h w d t h a n d c r a s s e r t s f r m o f  
t r a m a l l y s d e p d u p o n t h e r l a t t e r a t s o f  
o r a l d e e p n i g f t h e v a l l y b y t h e t r a m  
t l l n d o f e o n l w i d m t t h l y b y  
t h e c t r a g o f t b t a r y n e a d b y a n w a h  
a n d s l o w d w a w r d t e e p f o l n t h e v a l l e y  
s d e l a l l y a d d b y u d s t t n g f t h e l o p e  
b a e b y t h t e a m N a r w t e p a d d a l l e y  
r e f o e d b y t e p s f i f f w i n g s t r a m s t h a t  
r d p d l y a d b y a n a b e c e f x c e e s m  
u r f a e u n f f d w n t h l l y s d f o m o n t h a d  
j s t p l n d C o n r e l y b r d g e n t l d d  
l l v a e t y p i c l l y a c o l a t d w t h l w f w i g  
t r a s f g e t l e g a d e n t a l l e y w a l l s a r e o m  
p o s d f w e k m a t e r i a s a d a r e h a l y w a h d  
b y u n f S i m s t r m f l w g o p l s a  
u l l y g e n t l m g a d e n t l l y s m p l a n a  
o m m o l y w d h l l w a n d g e n t l s l o p d b u t  
g i f a t e x p t i n a n m r u

The s p n g o f a l l y n p l a n n d a t e s t h e  
i s t o h d l i p m e t o f t h t a m y t m  
h a d a c e d n r m a l l y t h g t t h e o s e o f  
t i m e m j o t a m d e l f a n n c e g n u m  
b e a d l e o t h o f t r b u t a u i l n t a l l y t h e  
e t d a n g e h a i c e p d i d b y a l l e r n d  
t h d e l p e W h e n t h p o t i s a h e d t  
b u t a r y m w i l m p l t C o n t u e d d e v e l o p  
m e n t n o t t h r d u t a o f l p n d l w e  
g f d d e s b e t w a t m n t l t h e w h l e  
f c l b e n b u g h t l w

P l a n d f f r g r a t l y i n t h t g f d e v e l p m n t  
t h r s t a m t m h a r c h d P l i  
w h h t l t a r y m t h h g h l y m p l t e  
t t b r d u t p l n d m a n b t w m p l t e  
p a d a l l y l l e d y t h f l P l a n  
h h t b t r y g r t h i m p l t a t m l  
m t a d r t p l l y o l l n g r f s i l k e t h e  
A p p l h a i d m t l t w e e n W s h n g t D C



Epidemiology of plague (G. W. Williams, Hooper Foundation, University of California)

epidemiology of an outbreak of the disease *P. pestis* fails to hydrolyze urea. Under favorable laboratory conditions it remains viable for months even years in rat flea pellet for months. It is inactivated at 55°C by 0.5% solution of phenol in 15 min and by streptomycin and tetracycline. Of its at least 10 antigens, the envelope antigen and the powerful toxic antigen are significant in immunity and pathogenesis.

Plague may be diagnosed by culture of blood or tissue fluid obtained from lymph nodes of man or dead rodents or by animal inoculation. Cultures may be quickly identified by a specific bacteriophage or more readily by agglutination test with potent antiserum. After the diagnostic material is rubbed on the freely hanged abdomen of guinea pigs, they die in 2-6 days. Bacilli can be found in blood and spleen films.

In warm climate plague usually is bubonic so called because of the characteristic swollen lymph node or bubo. Bubonic plague is usually transmitted to man by rat fleas. It may spread rapidly at times among commensal rats and mice mainly through the rat flea. During rat epizootics the fleas carry the plague bacillus in the midgut and proventriculus from which it is regurgitated during the bite. In cold climate it is more likely to take the much more fatal and contagious pneumonic or tonillar form. Pneumonic plague spreads from patients with primary pneumonic plague or from patients with bubonic plague and secondary pneumonic infection.

Endemic (sylvatic) plague may be maintained by any of 3/2 burrowing hibernating rodent such as field mice, quill, prairie dog, or rat, xerophilic or marmot which are widely distributed in the western third of the United States in large areas of South America in Central and South Africa in Iranian Turkistan and Central Asia.

Human infection is rare in the United States and arises from exposure to wild rodent or their

flea. Plague is often a terrible health problem in India, Burma, and Indonesia, although it is presently in a decline. It still persists there however in the wild rodent.

After treatment with sulfonamides (particularly sulfadiazine), streptomycin, tetracycline, or chloramphenicol, spectacular effects have been observed even in pneumonic plague which was formerly irremediable.

Perpetual systematic warfare against rodent is fundamental to prevention. The potent rodenticide Warfarin (dicoumarin) is used to free cities of rat and to establish rodent-free belts around towns and villages. In the control of epidemic, the first consideration must be elimination of the flea by use of insecticides with residual action (DDT in 5% kaolin or malathion). See ACQUITTATION REACTION, BACTERIOLOGY, MEDICAL BACTERIOLOGY, BRUCELLACEAE. [A. F. M.]

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## Plains

The relatively smooth sections of the continental surface occupied largely by gentle rather than steep slopes and exhibiting only small local differences in elevation. Because of their smoothness, plain land, if other conditions are favorable, are especially amenable to agricultural use. The absence of extensive steeply sloped features of great height is not only desirable in the number of obstacles to human transportation, but in past times the migration of animals but also permit the free movement of armies, a fact of great meteorological importance. It is thus not surprising that the majority of the world's major agricultural regions are located in the major agricultural regions. The concentration of population are found in plains. Nevertheless, it is unexpected that extensive plains are areas within which climatic conditions vary but slightly over long distances.

it and appears into the ground after a short  
fac run. Eventually, it is a very near the  
ri = collapse from general depression of  
iz. Some re hollows and in the  
the s = great p walled pits elongated  
i d all y. Some fth in the depression  
tan lak he eth = the a e p l gged with  
lay. The m t n v a e a = olu n featu de  
plan i th. United States ar ce tral a d  
n rth. Fl ds d in th Pa handle of T x  
In b th f th a a hollow ink h l s me  
i ke filled r num o. Some f i t rea of  
m s t e l t w k have de e p e d u fac  
fa too r g h l f l l der the b d ng f pla  
Th pec ally tu f r the m unit u a e a  
f g r at k and lutu n valleys i the Dalma  
t h i f l u o l a S. LARST TOPOGRAPHY  
Patterns associated with stream deposition  
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moothe t a d f t t e t l a d s r f a k n w n T u  
t e m d p o i t d p l n f l l i n t o t h r e e l a  
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(2) d l t f r m d b d p u n t h  
t r m m t h and (3) allu s l f n d p i d  
t h f o o t o f m i r h i l l s  
f l p l n s. The f i b t h l a n d m m t o  
l l f l d e v l o p w h r t h g l l w r e t h  
f t m y t m h a m e d m e s l o a d f d  
t h m t y t l e t b t s t h t h y a r a b l e t  
e y. Th d t s d i t e d i n t h t r m  
b d r f l o o d t i m e c t h w h l w d t h  
o f t h e f l y f l B a e i o s u d d e p t o n  
n d h k g i t h e t a m b e d p e t e d f l o o d  
n g a d t h e w t h w h h t h l l u m m a n

b m v e d t r e a m c o n t i n u a l l y f i t t h e r c h a n n e l  
n f l o d p l a i n. On p l a i n s f i e s i t t h e c l a n e l  
u a l l y f i g h l s n u o r m a n d e r i n g w h i l e  
n a n d y f l o o d p l a n t h e c h a n n e l i s b r a i l e d t h a t  
i r a d f a l l o w a n d i n t r i c a t e l y s i d d e d l y  
n u m r a l l a n d f a r i n e i t h e r c a e m a n y l o o p  
o r t a n d o f a b a n d n d c h a n n l n w m t l y d r y  
a n d f i l l e d i n e t h e f l o d p l a i n s u r f a c e. On t h y  
f l d p l a i n s t h e h i g h e t f a d s c o m m n l y f o u n d m  
m e d i a t e l y d i c e n t t o t h e h a i e l w h i l e f a t h r  
h i c k f r m t h e t r e m t h u r f a c e i s h i g h l y l o w e r  
Th h u r t r p c a l l e d n a t u r a l l e e s a r e  
f e d b y c t u s d e p o s i t o n d u r i n g f l o d w h e n  
t h l e t y o f f l o w s a b r u p t l y h e k e d a n d t h e  
b u l k f t h s d i m e t e r d r o p p d i m m e d i t e l y a s t h e  
w t r p a v e t h w i t e r e n t o f t h e d e p c h a n n l  
t p a d t h u n l y r t h e p l a i n

On m o r f l d p l i s t h e g r o u n d s t e r t a l l e i  
e v y w h e c l o e t o t h m f a c a n d s w m p y l a n d  
s c o m m o n t h b a d n d h n n e l a n d h a l l o w  
w a l e s b l n d t h n t l l e. F r t h r e a n  
t h e n t r a l l e e s a r e p e c i a l l y s i g h t a f t e r f o r  
c l t u t i o n t o u n i t e a n d t r a n p r i t n u l e  
T h e y n o m a l l y i r d e t h b i d r a d l d n t h e  
f l d p l a n a n d t h e l a t t o b f l o o d e d a s t h e w a t e r

T h o g h h a s a e l b y a h i g h w a t e r t a b l e a n d  
e c r e n t f l d f l o d p l a s e p e c i a l l y l i y o n e  
e f i n p r e z e d a g r i c u l t u r a l l a n d b e a u s e f t h  
f l e s l y e l l d s u r f a c e i n o m c a e t i e a l  
l m s a l o m o f r t l e t h a n t h e l o f t h  
o u r n d m p l a n d

H e e n d t h e r e a l o n g t h d s o f a l f e y b e t t m s  
a n d m e h i b e l l p e n t l e e l o f t r e m  
f l o o d p l a i n t p s o f m o o t h l a n d m t d i n t h e  
f m f b n h e r t r a c e s m a d e p f l l u v i u m  
T h r e r e m a n t f e t h r f l o o d p l a n t h a t h e  
f l e n l a r g e d s t y d b y a c a l o f d w  
u t t i n g b y t h e r s t r a m. I n m a n y i n t m t h e  
t e m f s t h n e c m m n d d p o t i n a d h a  
b u l t a e w f l o d p l a n t l y w l e v e l. T h e l  
l u a l t e r m a o f t e n a l u a l a g r c l l u a l l n d  
d e l r v w l f r t w n t e a d i n p o r t a  
t i n u t s b e c u t h y t a n d a b e f l o o d l e l s  
T h u f a e f t u r e o f d e l t a s a e r y s h e  
m a t h y u t d e r i b d i n l e e d d e l t  
o f t n m p l y t h w a d m i o n s f l o d p l a n  
h a r l e h w e r t h d l i a f a e e e n l e  
w l l d a n e d t h n t h f l o o d p l u f e a n d a t i t  
u t e r m p l a m a y m e g w i t h t h e a t h r u g h  
b r o d b e l t i m b y l a n d A t h e d e l t a g r w  
t n l l g a n g f t h t r e m o u t h p o d u e  
p e t e d d v o n a n d b u f a t i f t h e c h n e l  
H e n n a w e l l d e l p d d l t d h a g a r a l y  
t h r u g h a n g l e h n e l l u t t h u g h a p e d n  
t k f d v e g n g t n e l s d t i b t a e s

D e l t a. T h e v e r y g r a t l y z a n d f o r m  
M a n y l i k e t h e o f t h W s u p p t h N i t h e  
D b t h e v o l g a a e m m n f a n h a p e d  
f a t e t h a t h e p d u e d b o a d a s t l b l  
b y t h g r w l l O t h e s f l k t h s e f t h C o l r a d  
t h P t h T g r E u p h a t e t h g h n l e s  
t n a a l p p e n t t h m a p b c a u e  
t h y h b n b l t l g o a t l m b a y m e r

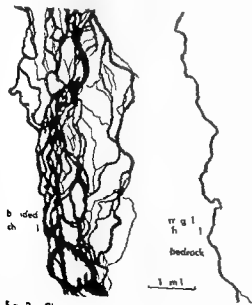


Fig 3 Ch p me f t m h n l  
fluv l d bedok r f f m v c f m  
G T T w h A H R b d E H H m m d  
El me l G e g p l y 4 t h d 3 3 3 G w H H 19577

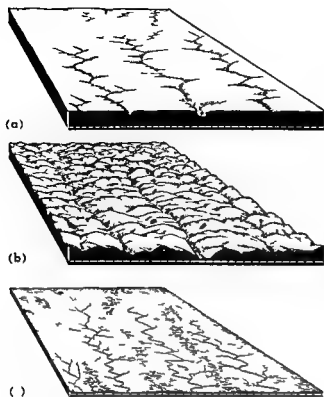


Fig 1 Ideal stages in the sequence of development of a landscape under the effects of stream erosion (a) Youth (b) maturity (c) old age (From V C F H G T Twarth A H Robs *and* d E H H mmo d Elem t of G eography 4th d McGraw Hill 1957)

and Atlanta Georgia Old age plains (also called peneplains) should ideally be low lying and smooth since they would represent the ultimate of erosion However they require so long to develop that they are usually reuplifted and reeroded before completion and hence are rarely found See FLUVIAL EROSION CYCLE STREAM TRANSPORT AND DEPOSITION

The pattern of valleys on plains depends chiefly upon the pattern of outcrop of rock materials of contrasting resistance In the absence of strong contrasts the pattern is usually branching and tree-like as in Fig 1 Where there is great differential resistance to erosion the unusually resistant rock form drainage divide whereas weak rock belts are soon excavated into broad valleys or lowlands Where erosional plains belt across gently warped

rock strata of varying resistance the belts of outcrop of the more resistant strata form tops of higher rougher country with an abrupt escarpment on one margin and a more gradual dip-slope in the direction toward which the strata are inclined The escarpments are common features in the American Middle West and Gulf Coastal Plains and in western Europe The various wind- and down- of England and the coasts of northern France are cuesta ridges

Most plains that develop in dry climates are characterized predominantly by stream-produced landforms in spite of infrequent rain The development of valley systems and erosional features follows the same general rules as it does in humid regions However some differences in relative rate and relative significance of certain of the developmental processes produce distinctive landscape characteristics in arid land First, rock decomposition is very slow so that the surface accumulation of weathered material is normally thin and coarse textured Second the sparse vegetation affords to the naked surface little protection against the battering and washing of the occasional torrential rain As a result the upper slopes become strongly gullied and often stripped of much of their covering material leaving bedrock exposed over wide areas The debris that is eroded from the upper slopes is rarely carried far however because of the short duration and local nature of the rains and hence the intermittent character of stream flow Therefore most of the debris load is dropped in the neighboring basins and valley floors drowning broad areas beneath plain of silt and or gravel Hence denuded and gullied upper slope and broad depositional flat in the lowland are characteristic features of desert plain See DESERT EROSION FEATURES

**Solution marked plains** Features resulting from underground solution characterize several rather extensive areas of plain The principal features of this class are depressions or sink holes produced by collapse of caverns underneath Significant groundwater solution is largely confined to areas underlain by thick limestone As subsurface cavities are progressively enlarged by solution more and more drainage is diverted to subterranean channels Surface streams become fewer

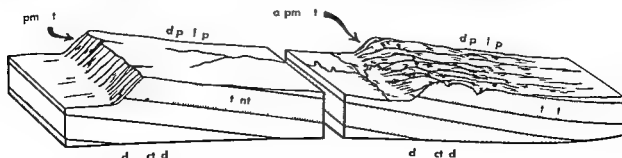


Fig 2 The structural features of a desert landscape (a) Youth (b) maturity (c) old age (From V C F H G T Twarth A H Robs *and* d E H H mmo d Elem t of G eography 4th d McGraw Hill 1957)

d E H H mmo d Elem t of G eography 4th d McGraw Hill 1957)



Fig 3 All the ... map ...  
 flow ... C ... A  
 Ph ...

be ... ed Th l we ... s f form r lak  
 fl ... d th ... r margin f ... tal pla ... e  
 ste ... p u l y p l y d a d  
 Th fl t u f ... p w l h D i r t Toled  
 Chi ... nd W n p g t n d ... all la t ne  
 pla (Fig 7) ... e the f m d B n lle Salt  
 Flu f t ... Ut h Th ... th Atl t d  
 Gulf m g s f th Unt d St te d m h f th  
 Ar t f ... f b r ... a pl f newly  
 m g d tal pl ... om of th pl e p e  
 t slu bl ag ... lu l land other a e i s  
 ly w m p y o ndy S DELTA FLOOD PL S  
 Character from recent glaciation Pl ...  
 il gl ted ... m d t n e s e i t s of

f r m i acc r d a n e with th o r e s p o n d i n g v a  
 e t y of r o a l a n d d e p o s i t i p c e ... l e d  
 A a g r u p l a n o w i n g t h e r i c e f e a t u r s  
 l a g l y t h w k of c o n t i n e n t a l c e h e e t a r e  
 d i t u g u h d b y t h a b e e of s y s t m t c i n t e g  
 i d p t e r n f t a m a l l e y a n d d i s t r i b u t i o n  
 t h p e n e f g e t n m b e r s f l k s d  
 e a m p s a d b y t h m r e c e o f r l m t e r  
 r i b e l n o t d s d f r m t h l a l b e d o c k  
 A l t h g h t h e w e e p b a b l y i m a j o r p e r o d s  
 f g l a c i g r t h n d d e c a y d r n g t h I A g e s  
 l y t h s e a a m d d i n g t h l a t g l a c i a l  
 t g (t h W s n g l e a t i n) h o w d i n t r o d u c e d  
 e p d u d u l a c e i m s T h f o m s p r o d u c d

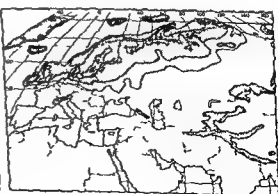
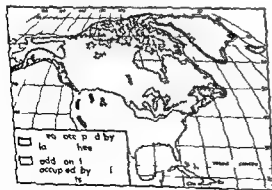


Fig 6 M p sh w g ... d by f m  
 ne l g l ... A l l R F f f i f m V C F h

G T Z w r t h A H R b d E H H m m n d  
 E l m t f G g p h y 4 t h e d M G w H i l 1957

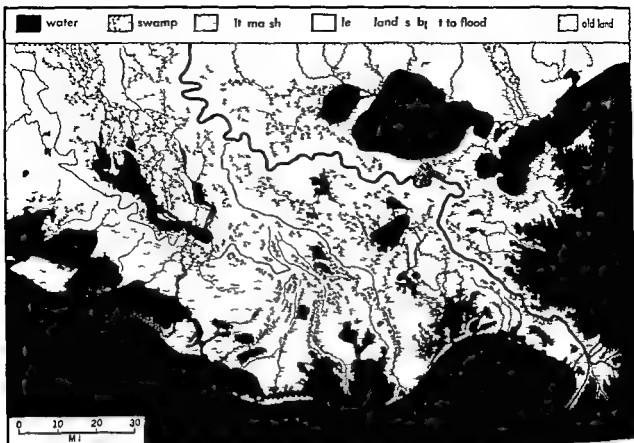


Fig 4 Swamp marsh and other features of the Mississippi River delta (F M V C F Ch T T E-

wartha A H Robn n a D E H Homm d El  
of Geography 4th ed McGraw-Hill 1957)

Some great rivers have no true deltas because their sediment load has been dropped in some interior settling basin as the Great Lakes remove most of the sediment from the St. Lawrence system and the Congo deposits most of its load in its broad upland basin.

Like floodplain deltas are sometimes highly valued as agricultural lands though they have the same problem of poor drainage and frequent flooding. The Nile delta and the huge silty delta plain of the Hwang Ho in north China are famous centers of cultivation. Many deltas of which that of the Mississippi is a good example are too swampy to permit tillage except along the natural levees. The Netherlands occupying the combined deltas of the Rhine and Meuse stand as an example of what can be done toward reclamation of such lands when the need is great.

If a stream emerges upon a gentle plain from a steeply plunging mountain canyon its velocity is abruptly checked and it deposits most of its load at the mouth of the canyon. Because of the tendency toward repeated choking and diversion of the channel the deposit assumes the form of a broad spreading fan usually similar to a delta even to the diverging distributary channels. Usually however the gradient developed are steeper than those on a delta especially near the head of the fan where the coarse sediment is to be found.

**Alluvial fans.** Small individual alluvial fans are common features in mountainous country especially where the climate is dry except for occa-

sional torrential showers. Particularly significant however are the occurrences along the foot of long precipitous mountain fronts of rows of alluvial fans that have coalesced to form an extensive gently sloping piedmont alluvial plain. Such a surface sometimes achieves great areal extent. The city of Los Angeles is built on such a plain. Still larger ones occupy much of the southern part of the Central Valley of California and stretch eastward from the Andes in northern Argentina, Paraguay and eastern Bolivia.

Because of their smoothness and mass of till and alluvial fans like other alluvial surfaces are often especially amenable to cultivation. They are particularly significant in drier areas partly because of the ease with which water may be conducted by gravity from the mountain canyon to any part of the fan and partly because the thick porous alluvium itself serves as a reservoir in which ground water is naturally stored.

Closely related to stream deposited plains are lacustrine or lake bottom plains and newly emerged coastal plains which are recently exposed areas of the former shallow sea bottom. These are the nearly featureless surfaces of sedimentary deposits that have been carried into the body of water by stream or by waves and either smoothed by action of waves and currents. Former beach lines are often the only noteworthy features in the mountainous flatlands. In the plateaus and valleys have been chiefly the result of the

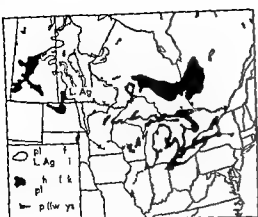


Fig 7 Th pt f f m l k Ag d th  
pl l k pl N rth Am a f m v c  
F h T T w rth A H R b d E H  
H m m d E l m t f G g phy 4th ed M G w  
H H 1957)

Patterns reflecting wind action Fe tre  
f m d by th d are l w de pr ad and a  
rle l obt e th th f m pod ced by  
t m d glac s th w d n t ck  
ly whe th f c i a mo t f re of g t a t  
t w k t t gly d t nly i d r gons  
d the nty f b h ad c nally e  
p ed r e bed n mo h m d l d T d y  
pl d field e al imp rta t p r y f w d  
e t

Th m t t k g and gnif a t w d p odu d  
f at e a e a d d e Whe ad xp edit  
t g id t m d abo t f h o t d t a  
d umu l t n h g th g a l v e n t i  
it pla f g S d d e a m may form  
f m r g l m n d a d e l o g t e d g e t e  
e t h p d hill n d a o s a g m t f  
d w a d p n d g r p tly upo th pply  
f a d th a t r f th u d l y g u f c d  
th t e g h d d t n l p r i t e f th w d  
lly all th t l y ext a f d  
d e f n d th E t n H m p h e p e  
lly th S h a A b i t r l A d th  
t f A u t l i M t f i d h b  
f u p p d p f m a l l u m t h a b d p t d  
d r b n d l l d  
l e v l r g n f th w l d o t bly n a th  
t l n l k d th n s l n d w e t n  
s d s o th f th S h r t e f  
d h t e c m d b y g u t a d f i d  
p o t t h y w e f m d g g t g t h e  
p o t l t y f l m t h g

Oth w d f m d f t e s r p o l h e d n d  
t h e d u t p f b d o c k t h t l w t h e f t f  
n t l d f i n g g r l p e m t l t g  
f m r h w g t f f i m t a l f m  
m e d a l l u m d h l l w b l o t w h a  
d p f m l b y l e l d e m

Th f t y m t l m d b y th w d s  
f d m a t l b d p a f e o n t y  
f w n f m t h p l a f r g Th u g l lly

th n th mantle n places reach es a th r k n e s of a  
f w t s of feet th u m e w h a t m d i f y i n g t h e  
f m o f t h u f a e The exte n s d e p o s i t s o f  
u n t r i f i e d b f f e l o e d l i m e - r i h l i v m a t e r a l  
k o w n s i e a e b e l i e d t h a v e o r i g n a t e d f r m  
s u l w n d l a i d d e p o s i t s L o e s i s b u n d a n t i n t h  
c e n t a l U n i t e d S t a t e s a t e r n E u r o p e a n d u t h e n  
R s a n d m i t t r n o t h C h i n a I t y i e l d s r d  
a l y t g u l l y n g e o s o n a n d h a t h e f a c i l i t y o f m a n  
t a n n g e m a k a b l y s t e e p l o p e s o t h a t e r o i n a l  
t e r r d l o p e d n d e e p l o i s f t e n u u s a l l y  
r u g h a d a g l a S e L o e s s

### INTERRUPTED PLAINS

Inter upted plains or plains broken by om  
feature of n i l e r a b l e r i e f o c u r w i d e l y n d  
m e t w i n d e p e n d e n t t r e a t m e n t T h e y m y b d d  
n t o t w c o t a n g g r u p s (1) t b l e a n d w h i h  
a r p l a d p l n s d e e p l y u t a t i n t e r v a l s b y s t e e p  
s a d d a l l e y o r b o k e b y e c c a r m e n t s a d  
(2) p l a s w i t h p a c d h i l l r m o u n t a n i n w h i c h  
t h e x e r i e l i e f i s r d e d b y t e p i e l e m  
n e c s t h r e a b s t h e p l a n l t h t y p s o f r  
f a c w i t h t h e r c o m b a t i n o f p l i n d g h  
l n d u g g t h t r e o f d l p m e n t t h a t c m b n e  
x t n g a d t i n a n d t r o g t e t i a c t y

Tablelands The e a r e n t i a l l y u t h f u l p l a s  
t h a t h b e n u u l l y d e p l y u t b y v l l e y  
T h i r q r e t h t t h p l i n h a l l h e b e l n g h t  
t l e v e l h u n d e d r e v n a f e w t h o a n d a f f e t  
a b o e t h e l e v e l t w h i h t r a m s a e d l m t  
a s t h s e l e t u n h b e n a c c m p l h e d b y t h  
b r d u p l f t g f n e r s o n a l l l a l p l a n  
b u t a f e w i n t n c t h e p l a n h a b e n b u i l t  
h h l e l b y t h d e p t n a f m a y t h c k h t  
f l a a

I t i s a l s e c s a r y t h a t d u n g t h e t i m e r e  
q r d f o a f e w m a j o t a m s t h e u t d e e p  
a y n a l a r e a s f t h e p l n d p l a i n h l l h e  
u f f e d n o g n i f i c t d i s t n f m r t b u t a r y  
d e l p m t c o n d t i n r e q u i r e p e c a l i m  
s t a n e s S u c h i h b t d t b t a r y g r o w t h i a l l y  
t h e c u l t f e t h (1) l i g h t l e l m f a c e n f  
f w t e r b u e f a d t y m t r e m e f i n a s o f t h  
p l d h g h l y p s m t e r a l o r ( ) t h e p r s

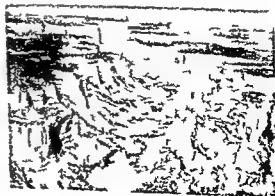


Fig 8 A l d i t b l i d C y d Ch lly N  
t l M m t t h t A (Sp A  
Ph t



elsewhere by earlier glaciations have been largely obliterated by stream erosion and soil creep. The last glaciation at its maximum covered all of Canada, the Great Lakes states and New England as well as Scandinavia, Finland and most of the British Isles, Baltic Europe, northern Russia and northwestern Siberia. These are the areas of glacial plains.

Northern and eastern Canada and the Fennoscandian upland, the areas in which the ice sheets developed and from which they spread out, now exhibit more evidence of glacial erosion than of glacial deposition. Over broad areas the soil has been largely stripped off, exposing patches and knobs of scoured bedrock. Shallow depressions have been eroded in the underlying rock, and patchy deposits of glacially transported debris (drift) are strewn thinly about over the surface. Lakes and swamps of irregular shape are extremely abundant. Some occupy the eroded hollows, others accumulating where streams have been blocked by drift deposits. Streams wander from lake to lake, with many waterfalls and rapids along their devious courses.

The areas of dominant glacial erosion owe their existence to two factors. First, the unusually resistant rock that happens to underlie both areas did not yield large quantities of drift. Second, most of the drift that was eroded from these regions was carried out toward the outer edges of the ice sheets, where melting permitted it to be dropped. See **EROSION, GLACIATED TERRANE**.

Because of their patchy thin and stony soils and large areas of standing water, the glacially scoured regions would not be favorable areas for human occupancy even if the climate were less severe than it is. Even the coniferous forests native to the areas are neither dense nor luxuriant.

The outer parts of the glaciated areas on the other hand are characterized chiefly by features of glacial deposition, though erosional features are not rare. Throughout the areas in western Canada, the north-central United States and northern Europe outside of the Fennoscandian upland, glacial drift was strewn over the preexisting terrain in a sheet of irregular thickness and varied composition.

**Till.** Much of the drift represents mixed rock and soil material deposited beneath the ice or at the edge of the sheet directly by melting ice. This material, called till, is as a rule most thickly deposited in the valley and thinly over the ridge top, thus having the effect of reducing terracing regularity. The surface of the till sheet itself is usually gently rolling with many shallow depressions containing lake or swamps, numerous haphazardly placed swell and hillock, and no systematically arranged stream valleys. Hummocky stony ridges called marginal moraines mark places where the fluctuating edge of the ice remained stationary for long periods of time. In the central localities, notably in eastern Wisconsin and western New York, are swarms of smooth low drift hills

all elongated in the direction of ice movement. The mode of origin of these drumlins is uncertain.

The surfaces of stony till plains are usually more irregular than those on clay till. Northern Illinois has a remarkably smooth surface developed on clay till, apparently eroded from the Lake Michigan basin. Eastern Wisconsin, northern Michigan, western New York, and southern New England on the other hand have more rolling surfaces underlain by till having a high content of silt and sand. In a few areas, especially in southern New England and in the marginal moraine areas, where the till is so very stony as to impede cultivation.

**Outwash.** Some of the debris transported by the ice is carried out beyond the glacial margin by streams of meltwater. This material, called outwash, may be deposited as a floodplain (here called a valley train) along a preexisting valley bottom, or it may be spread broadcast over a preexisting plain in a form similar to an alluvial fan. In either case the surface will usually be smooth with the features that are typical of such alluvial plains. Unlike the heterogeneous unsorted and unstratified till, outwash material is usually distinctly layered and well sorted in size. The fine material of silt and clay size is carried out downstream, leaving the coarser sands and gravels to form the outwash deposits. Most of the gravel and pit that abound in glaciated areas are developed in outwash plains.

Whereas much outwash was deposited beyond the extreme limits reached by the ice, some was also laid down over already deposited till surfaces after the ice had melted back from its maximum extent. Under such conditions the surface of the outwash plain is sometimes pitted and lake-trenched, the depressions having formed as a result of the melting of relic ice masses that were buried by outwash deposition.

Patches and ribbons of outwash are common in glaciated areas and in a few places into high unusual quantities of meltwater were funneled, there are very extensive sandy plains. Noteworthy in this respect are the southern Michigan and northern Indiana area and Europe immediately south of the Baltic.

**Lacustrine plains.** Also present in and around the glaciated area are numerous lacustrine plains. mark, the beds of former lakes that were filled from the blocking of rivers by the glacial ice itself. During the melting of the last ice sheet, while the St. Lawrence and other northward flowing rivers were still dammed by the Great Lakes basin, were much fuller than now and overflowed to the southward. When lake levels were eventually lowered, lacustrine plains were exposed, notably about Chicago at the western end of Lake Erie, and about Saginaw Bay in Michigan. One of the most featureful plains of North America occupies the former bed of an immense lake (Lake Agassiz) that was present in late glacial time in southern Manitoba, northwestern Minnesota, and northern North



Fig 9.3 d g = try i th M i De n th to C l l (Sp A Phol )

ba n f l a h a t e r t o o f t h e m a t e c e l m  
F o t h s o n t h y l y l l y u e f u l t m n  
i n p u t e f u l l a g m n t i m t h l d t h a t  
t h y f i r d T h h w e v m n y i m p o r t a n t  
a u l l y t h b e o f t h e x p t n o  
l i n g t h o u o f t h f w t r e a m t i t h v  
w d e r d f r m m t a d j e l r e g r s

[E R H A]

B b i g p h y \ C F n h, G T T e w r t h  
A H R b d E H H m m n d E l m t f  
G s p h y 4 t h d 1957

### Planck's constant

A l f n d m n t l p h y i t a t w h h p r e n t s  
t h l o m e t q u a n t u m t t t b g  
d f i n e d a g y m u l t p l i d b y t m l t d e d  
b W a P l k 1900 t b t h v a l h =  
6.626 x 10<sup>-34</sup> J s  
The symbol h m e t a l l d t h D a A s t  
t e d f a e n g h t i n t t h  
q n t i t y w h r = 1.516

T h u q u e s t i o n e f P l a n k i a t t t  
u e 3 b P l c k d r g h a d t n l a w h  
m l i p l e d b y t l e q e y t a d a t n u  
m e d b u d l f n g y t h t a q a t u m f  
g y R d n t n g y t n y w a n g h c a o  
n l y m u l t p l f t h n t h u e g y  
q t d T h w a a f u d a m t a l d p a r t u  
f m t b e l f f p h y p t P l k m R U n t l  
w d e d q t t t l g t P l k m R U n t l  
P l k d e d d h l w t o a t f y e x p m e n t i  
d t t h g e n t l b e l f w s t h a t n e g y d b e  
d d e d d f n l s T h q u a n t a t i f g y m  
t l e d b y P l k n a t a l d t h i d t t  
g h t p o w h h m u h f m o d e r n p h y h s

B a s b d T h e f q u a n c y o f m i t t e d r a d i a t i o n i s  
e l t e d t o t h q n t e d e g y  $\Delta E$  b y t h r l  
w o  $\Delta E = h \nu$

The c o e p t f e n r g y q a t i z a t n f i s t b e g a n  
i n w n g e m l a e p t a n c a f t e r 1905 w h e n A l b e r t  
E i n s t e i n h w d t h a t i t g a a g o d e c u r s o f s m e  
t h i t p r a z i n g i s t u s f t h e p h o t o e l e c t  
e f f e c t L a t e r A H C o m p t o n h w e d t h a t t h e e l t r o n  
m g n e t c q u a t a t o t r y m m e n t m p w h h i s  
r e l a t e d t o t h e w l n g t h  $\lambda$  b y  $p = h/\lambda$

F n t e d e d d a o n o f P l a c k s r a d i a t i o n  
l a w H e a t r a d i a t i o n F a d a n f t h e  
r l f P l a c k s c a t a t i t h e o r e t i c a l p h s s e e  
Q U A N T U M M E C H A N I C S S e l s A T O M I C C O N S T A N T S  
[H C S p r w]

### Planck's radiation law

A l a w o f p h y s w h l l g v e t h e p o t e n t i a l e n e r g y  
d e t b t n f t h e h t r a d i a t i o n e m i t t d f o m a  
s o c a l l d b l a c k b o d y a t a n y t e m p e r a t u r e  
D i s c o v e r e d b y M a x P l a n c k i n t h e t w t e t h e n t u r y  
t h l w d t h f u n t i o n f o r t h d n t o f t h e  
q n t m t h e r y b a e t w s t h f i r s t p h y a l  
l a w t p o t e n t i a l t h t l e t m a g n e t n e g y x  
i s t n d s m b n d l q u a n t a F o a n x  
t d e d d s o s e H e r R A D I A T I O N S i s  
Q U A N T U M M E C H A N I C S

[H C S p r w]

### Plane

I t h e e l d e a n d f i n t n a r f e s t h a t w h e t  
h a s i n g t h d h e d t h o l y a d p l a n e u f c e  
f e w h h i s e v e l y w t h t a g h t  
l o u t f A d d t o t p l a n e t h a t a d  
t h i s m e a n t l o c e l y d e f i n e d c p t f a u f c

ence at the upland level of very resistant strata of rock that have permitted only the most powerful streams to cut through. Hence tablelands are predominantly a dry land terrain type. Those that do occur in rainier climates usually indicate the presence of an exceptionally resistant cap rock layer.

The cliffs and escarpments that are common features of tableland regions are sometimes fault scarps produced by the breaking and vertical displacement of the crust during uplift. More often, however, they are simply steep valley sides that have retreated long distance from their original positions under the attack of weathering and erosion. Sometimes a once extensive tableland will have been encroached upon by the wearing back of its bordering escarpments that nothing remains but a small flat topped mesa or butte.

Tablelands are the least widespread of the major terrain types presumably because of the restrictive circumstances under which they can develop. The most extensive examples occur in the American continents. Especially noteworthy are the Colorado Plateaus largely in northern Arizona and southern Utah which represent a complex erosional plain that has been greatly uplifted and then deeply carved by the Colorado River and its major tributaries. Preservation of large sections of the upland plain has been favored by dryness and by the presence of nearly horizontal resistant rock strata. The few major streams that have cut deep canyons are all fed from moister mountainous areas round about.

The Columbia Plateau in eastern Washington is a porous lava plain cut by the Columbia River and a few tributaries. The northern Great Plains lying east of the Rocky Mountain front in Nebraska northward into Alberta are an old alluvial plain now crossed by valleys of moderate depth that have been cut by streams issuing from the Rockies. The Patagonian Plateau of southern South America is a somewhat similar surface locally reinforced by extensive lava flows. Part of the upland of interior Brazil though in a moist environment retains a tableland form because of the resistance of thick and tone bedded at the upland level.

Though there are significant exceptions tableland as a group suffers in their economic development from the difficulty of passage through their narrow gorges and across their numerous escarpments and in moist areas also from the dryness of their upland surface.

**Plains with spaced hills or mountains.** These are much more widespread than tableland and largely represented in each continent. Surfaces included under the general heading vary from plains studded with scattered small hills and hill groups to mountain and plain country in which high rugged ranges occupy almost as much space as the plain between them.

Surfaces of the general type can be produced by two quite different lines of development. (1) They may be high relief land that have been brought to the erosional stage of early old age in which case

the isolated hills represent the only remnant of a once extensive highland. (2) They may represent areas in which separated hill or mountain have been constructed by volcanic eruption or by folding or buckling of the crust. The land between them having remained smooth from the outset, or having been smoothed by erosion and deposition since the mountains were formed.

Examples of the first course of development are limited in the United States to small areas in southern New England and in the Appalachian Piedmont just east of the Blue Ridge. Many patches occur in the glacially covered section of northern and eastern Canada and similarly in northern Sweden and Finland. Extensive areas are found in the southern regions of Venezuela and Guiana in the upland of eastern Brazil and especially on the uplands of central and southern Africa.

In such areas the plains are typical late-stage erosional depositional surfaces usually gently undulating. The remnant hill (monadnock) rises abruptly from the plain like islands from the sea. Although monadnocks commonly represent outcrops of unusually resistant rocks that have withstood erosion most effectively many are not thus distinguished but owe their existence solely to their position at the headwaters of the major stream systems where they are the last portions of the highland to be reduced.

Surfaces on which paced mountains have been constructed by crustal deformation or oceanic activity occur extensively in the great cordillera belts of the continents and rarely outside of those belts. The largest of all such regions is the Basin and Range section of western North America which extends without interruption from southern Oregon through the southwestern United States and northern Mexico to Mexico City. The majority of the rugged mountain ranges of this section are believed to represent blocks of the crust that have been uplifted or upthrust and then strongly eroded. The plains between them are combination of erosional depositional surfaces some of which have clearly expanded at the expense of the adjacent mountains. As the mountains have been reduced by erosion there have evolved at their bases smooth gently sloping plains that are in part erosional pediment closely akin to old age peneplain and in part piedmont alluvial plains. Many of the basins have interior drainage and in the case the floor is likely to be especially thickly alluviated and to contain shallow saline lake or alkali deposits in its lowest part.

Other areas of somewhat similar terrain are found in the central Andes in Turkey and the Middle East and in Tibet and central Asia. The Tibetan and central Andean sections are particularly striking for the extreme elevations (12,000-15,000 ft) of the ranges. In general the range areas in the Asiatic area are developed on a grander scale than those in North America.

It is a curious circumstance that practically all the regions are dry arid or semiarid. The intensely eroded mountain lands are the only ones that

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tan es bey appro mat ly an emp rical law di  
c er d by J D T tius and publ ed by J E  
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Earth 2 f M nd s f r Th c mputed and  
berved d t n c a g i n Table 1

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s ill g at r i the ase f Plut (ee Fig 1)

Planetary configurations I the e u e f the  
m t n s d th Su Erth a d ther pl nts  
occ py a r ty of l t m p s i t i n r o f i g r  
t u s (Fig 2) the p i c p l of which are de i  
nated a f l l w th t r pla ets a e m c n  
ju et with the Sun whe lo est t the Earth  
S n d r e c t i o n w th l e t w e th Erth nd the S n  
(i f e o c n j n t i n) s b e y o n d th Su (sup  
r r c o j e t ) O r r o c c a s i o n s w h t h e  
p l e t s e r y c l o t t h p l a n o f t h E a t h s o  
b t t h e t m e f n n f o o n j c t i o n a t a s i t  
i f o t o f the Sun s b e r v e d S T R A N S I T  
(ASTRO OMV)

B t w j n t i the angul d stance from  
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l n g a t s f M e c r y a d v n u a e 28 a d 47  
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t e d a n d t h r l g a t a n r e c h p t o 180  
w h n t h y r i n p p i t i n w i t h t h S u n w h e n  
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t i e t e a t e o w i t r n) w i t h t h S

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r m n t h n g l e b t n the d r e c t i n f l l u  
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w a n n f c j u n t o n d g t e t e l o g  
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j u c i n t h y h w g i b l u p h s l i k t h e  
M o n b t w n q t r d f u l l m o A t p  
j u t h t h h w a s v l r d k f l l y l l u  
m a t e d a d e f c n h l e d g t a s t s  
t h d k d p f i l d g a n t i l S u Th e x  
t p l t h w t h i f l i p h m b t h n  
l t a d p p o s t a d a g b b o s p h a n a  
q d t r e f the l i m t d f t i s m  
m m

T b l 1 D i t c e s o f t h p l e t s f o m S u (A U)

	Cal	Observed
Mer	0.4	0.39
Venus	0.7	0.72
Earth	1.0	1.00
Mars	1.6	1.52
Jupiter	5.2	5.20
Saturn	9.5	9.54
Uranus	19.2	19.2
Neptune	30.1	30.1
Pluto	39.5	39.5

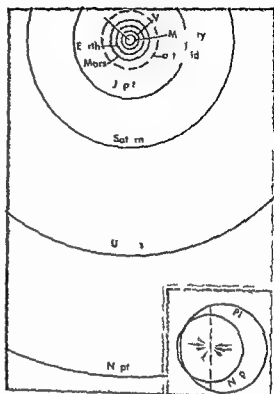
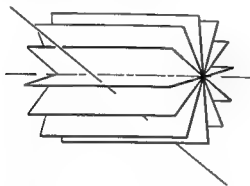


Fig 1 P l a f t h o l s y t m

Apparent motions The e m b a t o n s of the  
orb t a l m o t i o n o f E a t h n d f a n y o t h e r p l n e t  
g e r i n t o c m p l c a t e d p p a e t m o t i o n s o f the  
p l n e t s a o b r v e d f m the E a t h B e c u e the  
o b u s f t h m a i n p l a e t a r e x c e p t f o Plut  
l i t t l e t l n e d f r m the p l a e o f t h r b t o f Earth  
the p p n t p a t h o f the p l a n t s ( e x c e p t Plut o)  
a r e s t d t t h e z d i a b e l t 16 w i d e c n  
t e d o n t h c l p t c T h e c l p t i c t h e f t h n  
t h e s k y t r a d u t l y the S n m i t s a p p a e n t a n  
n a l j o u r n y a s the E r t h v o l e a n d i t s e  
A S T R O N O M I C A L C O O R D I N A T E S Y S T E M S) A l n g t h s  
s a t h the a p p r e t m t i o n s f the i n t e r p l a t  
w i t h r p c t t the S u n a e a l t e r n a t e l y w t w a d  
f m g e t e s t e l g a t n t h o u g h i n f e i o j n e  
t i n t g r e a t s t e l o n g t n t h a s t w a d f o m  
g r e t t e l n g a t n t h r t h p c o j u n t i m  
t o g e a t e l o n g t T h e m t n f the e t i o r  
p l n t s a l w s w s t w r d ( e f F g 3)

The a p p r n t m o t n w i t h r p e t t o t h l s  
t l p h r e t h a t t h t f i x d t r p p a f o  
t h i n t e i o p l m s c i l l a t e s b k d f o r t h  
a b o t h e p o t n f the S n s t d l y m o g e s t  
w r d m g t h s t r F t h x t o p l a n e t t h  
p p r n t m t i n s g n e l l y t w d o d t  
b t f h r t p o d n e t h t u m e f p p t i n  
i t s c o t w d o r e t r g r a l e A t t m e w h e t h  
d r e t i o n o f the p p a n t m o t i o n n t h p h e r e  
b g t h p l n e t p p t b e s t t a r y  
T h a i n t e r v a l o f t m b t w n e s i e  
t u s t o t h a m p l w t h e p e c t o the s t r s  
t h e d r a l p d w h h g o e t h t r m o  
t o f r l u t o f the p l a n t o n t b t a n d

is as follows. A plane is a set of at least three points not all collinear such that if any two points  $A$  and  $B$  of the set are given all points of the line  $AB$  are in the set and such that if any four points  $A$ ,  $B$ ,  $C$ ,  $D$  of the set are given then at least one of the pairs of lines  $AB$  and  $CD$  or  $AC$  and  $BD$  or  $AD$  and  $BC$  have a common point. (This last restriction prevents a plane from occupying all of space.) Still another definition is this. A plane is the locus of points each equidistant from two points in space. Points or lines in the same plane are called coplanar. Each two planes are congruent. Two planes that have a common point have a common line. (This is not true in spaces of more than three dimensions.) There is one and only one plane that contains (a) three given noncollinear points or (b) a given line and a given point not on the line or (c) two given intersecting lines or (d) two given parallel lines.



Coaxial plane and intersecting line

Although a plane is unlimited in extent it is usually represented by a parallelogram or other plane figure in a drawing. Three or more planes that have a line in common are called coaxial plane (see illustration). See ANALYTIC GEOMETRY. GEOMETRY. EUCLIDEAN. LINE. POINT. [J.S.F.]

## Plane table

A tripod-mounted drawing board on which topographic survey details are compiled in the field. The table and affixed manuscript sheet are oriented at a point represented by a point on the sheet. Stadia sightings with an alidade locate additional points by direction-distance observations. Points also are located by intersections of the sightings from two different plane table points. Sufficient additional points are observed to permit sketching planimetric details. Elevation differences also are observed for contour sketching. See ALIDADE. TOPOGRAPHIC SURVEYING AND MAPPING. [R.H.D.]

## Planer

A machine for the shaping of long flat or flat contoured surfaces by reciprocating the workpiece under a stationary single point tool or tool. Usually the workpiece is too large to be handled on a shaper.

Planers are built in two general types—open side or double housing. The former is constructed with

one upright or housing to support the cross rail and tools. The double housing type has an upright on either side of the reciprocating table connected by an arch at the top.

Saddles on the cross rail carry the tool which feed across the work. A hinged clapper box free to tilt provides tool relief on the return stroke of the table. A variation is the milling planer which uses a rotary cutter rather than a single-point tool. See SHAPER. see also MACHINING OPERATIONS. WOODWORKING. [A.V.]

## Planet

A small solid celestial body circulating around a star in particular our Sun. Beside Earth the best known main planets of the solar system are Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, Neptune, and Pluto. In addition over 1600 minor planets or asteroids circulate, mainly between the orbits of Mars and Jupiter, are known.

**Classification.** There are two main groups of planets—the small terrestrial planets—Mercury, Venus, Earth, Mars, and Pluto—and the large or major planets—Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, and Neptune. The asteroid may be the remnant of a very small planet (or planets) of the terrestrial group. Each of the main planets from Earth to Neptune is accompanied by one or more secondary planets or satellites. Pluto may once have been a satellite of Neptune.

The planets are also divided into interior planets—Mercury and Venus circulating inside Earth's orbit—and exterior planets from Mars to Pluto circulating outside it.

**Kepler's laws.** The motions of the planets in their orbits around the Sun are governed by three laws discovered by J. Kepler at the beginning of the seventeenth century.

**First law.** The orbits of the planets are elliptical of which the Sun occupies a focus.

**Second law (law of areas).** Equal areas of the ellipse are described by the radius vector from the Sun to the planet in equal intervals of time.

**Third law (harmonic law).** The square of the periods of revolution  $P$  are proportional to the cubes of the major axes of the orbits  $a^3$  that is for all planets the ratio  $P^2/a^3$  is equal to a constant. The ratio is equal to unity if  $a$  is in astronomical units and  $P$  in sidereal year. One astronomical unit (AU) is the mean distance from Earth to the Sun and is approximately equal to  $93.5 \times 10^6$  mi.

The constant of the harmonic law is given by Newton's law of gravitation as  $G(M+m)/4\pi^2$  where  $M$  and  $m$  are the masses of the Sun and the planet and  $G$  is the constant of gravitation. See GRAVITATION.

Kepler's laws are true to a first approximation only when the mutual perturbation of the motions of the planet by the other are neglected.

**Bode's law.** From Kepler's third law the relative mean distance (in astronomical units) of the planets to the Sun can be calculated from the following table:

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 s a ly eph m r de tra ted in a f rm co en  
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# ALFANAC

The el m ts f th pla ets y rbt re g n  
 i Tabl

**Planetary sizes** The app e t d ameter f a  
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 M r m e t r p e f t bly a b e f r ng t  
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 f th ppar t d meter f pl t d wh n  
 it d ta c t the Earth's  $\Delta$  th l n d am t r  
 $D = \Delta / d = \Delta d / 206265$  w t r e d s  
 m u d n eco ds f r Th l ea d am t r  
 xp ed n th ame it a  $\Delta$  wh h ge by  
 the ph m d tr om l t son  
 to m l k l met ge by th d p t d rlu  
 f th t m l u t l AU =  $935 \times 10^6$  m =  
 $1496 \times 10^6$  km

Whe pl f lte ng t i eptbl l th th po-  
 l r d i t r a l ad n bed te m d  
 n Tabl 3 th mea r d =  $1/4 + 1$  a d  
 th l l p t y =  $(1 - r)$  Th mea du  
 m y a l b x p e d t r m f the mea du  
 f th Earth (3/59 m) a a u Th l l e a  
 then y e l y e q l t a d th l l e o l  
 m t

**Masses gravity and density** The mas of a  
 pl net f o d e l y f th on m r a t l  
 l t l f i s the m d n t m m ) x s) of  
 th a t l l e a b i d P t p e d f e l t  
 xp d e p t l y n t om l u t nd

## Tbl 2 Elem t f pl t r y rbt

Pl net	Symbol	M (Earth)	d (10 <sup>6</sup> km)	S d eaf period (yr rs)	Sy ad pe od (d y l)	M (loc ty /sec)	F t ty (poch 1900)	I linat (poch 1900)
Mer	☿	0.387	5.9	0.11	87.97	11.88	0.07	00
Ven	♀	0.723	108	0.61	116	583.9	0.007	3.4
Earth	♁	1.000	149.6	1.000	365.25	9.80	0.01	0.00
Mars	♂	0.532	228	1.88	686.98	9.91	0.093	1.1
Jup	♃	31.8	778.5	11.86	4333.59	398.88	0.018	1.18
Sat	♄	95.1	1429.6	29.46	10759.3	379.66	0.06	30
Uran	♅	45.9	2870.9	84.01	30687	36.19	0.01	0.16
Nept	♆	51.9	4504.1	164.8	60181	36.6	0.009	1.1
Plut	♇	0.0023	5900	248	90.00	4.7	0.1	1.09

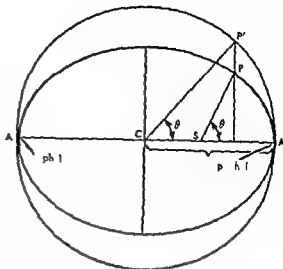


Fig 4 Ellpt m to

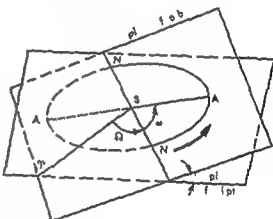


Fig 5 Obil l m n

ad al ye the mas m of a pla et i given  
 th ough N wt a law of g v t a n by  $m =$   
 $f P$  n term f the ma of the S n a a u n t  
 Th a u me th t th m f the sat l l t r l a t i e  
 t th pl n t nd of the Ea th el a t e to th S n  
 m y b e n g l e d wh h n l v al w a y th c a e  
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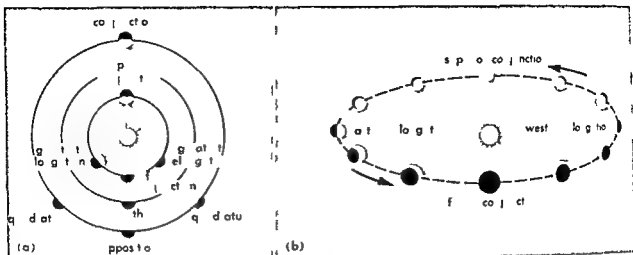


Fig 2 (a) Planetary configurations (b) Phase of the planet

the Sun. The mean interval of time between successive returns of the same configuration with respect to the Sun (for example conjunctions or oppositions) is the synodic period which governs the apparent motion of the planet as seen from Earth (see Table 2).

**Elliptical motion.** The motion of a planet having an elliptical orbit of semimajor axis  $a$  with the Sun at the focus  $S$  brings it every half revolution to the perihelion  $A$  and to the aphelion  $A'$  the points of the orbit respectively nearest to and farthest from  $S$ . If  $C$  is the center of the ellipse the semimajor axis is  $a = CA = CA'$  the eccentricity of the ellipse is  $e = CS/CA = CS/a$  whence  $SA = a(1-e)$   $SA' = a(1+e)$  (see ELLIPSE). The distance  $SP = r$  of the planet to the Sun at any other point is  $r = a(1-e)/(1+e \cos \theta)$  where the angle  $\theta = \angle ASP$  is the true anomaly. If  $P'$  is the point on the principal circle of radius  $CA = a$  whose projection in the ellipse is  $P$  (see Fig 4) the eccentric anomaly is the angle  $\theta' = \angle ACP'$  so that  $r = a(1-e \cos \theta')$ . If the planet was at perihelion at time  $T$  and returns to it at time  $T + P$  the mean angular velocity (or mean motion) is  $n = 2\pi/P$  and the mean anomaly at any time  $t$  is  $M = n(t - T)$ .

The relation between the mean and eccentric anomalies  $\theta - e \sin \theta = M$  is known as Kepler's equation; its solution gives  $\theta$  and consequently  $r$  at any time  $t$  when the orbital elements  $a, e, n, T$  are known.

**Orbital elements.** The position of a planet in its orbit and the position of the orbit in space is completely defined by seven orbital elements (see Fig 5): (1) the semimajor axis  $a$ ; (2) the eccentricity  $e$ ; (3) the inclination  $i$  of the plane of the orbit to the plane of the ecliptic; (4) the longitude  $\Omega$  of the ascending node  $N$ ; (5) the angle from the ascending node  $N$  to the perihelion  $A$ ; (6) the sidereal period of revolution  $P$  or the mean (daily) motion  $n = 2\pi/P$  and (7) the date of perihelion passage  $T$  or epoch  $E$ . See ORBITAL MOTION.

If the plane of a planet's orbit is inclined to the plane of the ecliptic their intersection  $AN$  is the

line of nodes in its motion the planet crosses the plane of the ecliptic from south to north at the ascending node  $N$  and from north to south at the descending node  $N'$ . The longitude of the ascending node is the angle  $\Omega = \angle \gamma SA$  measured in the plane of the ecliptic from the vernal equinox  $\gamma$ . The longitude of perihelion is  $\omega = \Omega + \angle \gamma SA + \angle NSA$  the second angle being measured in the plane of the planet's orbit (see Fig 5). The location of the plane of the orbit in space is defined by  $i$  and  $\Omega$  the orientation of the ellipse in this plane by  $\omega$  and it is size by  $a$ , the position of the planet on the ellipse by  $P$  and  $T$  (and by the time  $t$ ).

**Determination of orbital elements.** Accurate observations of the positions of the planet with respect to the stars (for example as measured on photographs) or with respect to the celestial co-

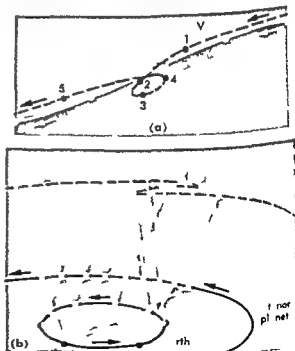


Fig 3 Apparent motion (a) of a superior planet with respect to the Sun and (b) of an inferior planet with respect to the first fixed star

measured (U u Neptune Pluto) the theo et  
e i bla k body temp : tur ca lie de ied fr m  
the kn w v lu f the olar nstant d the lws  
of le t r d ton

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r d o tele c pe Th s emi : n tak s the form of r  
regular b r t of n i rignat g : th planet  
atm phe m f om ubja m t ou ces but ts exa t  
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Possible unknown planets D r g the n ne  
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cau d by a unknown pl et cir ulat ng b rwe n  
the Sun and Mercu y call d Vule whi h w  
fok d fr in a n Th s r g l nty wa at fac  
t r l pl ed in 1915 by Ein t g ne al th  
ry f elatu ity (se RELATIVITY) It : now e r  
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bl to th t : l al planets x t

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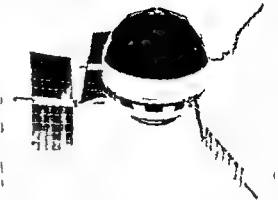
Planets outside the solar system Minut per  
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omp n n t of m l l m a the e y t m The  
m m f these atell t b d alth u h l s r g r  
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F m th s r e d n e t n f e r e d that pla et ry a y  
tem ar t s u n m n i th r e s w a s  
prev u ly be l i e v e d b t n e l a b l m t e f i t h e  
f e q u y o f s l y t e m c a l m a d e s y t  
W h e t h e r s o m l the planets attend r g o t h t a s  
a e h a b t a b l e b y a d m d b e s g o : a t m e  
l w r f o r m f l i e u k n w the doct r i n f i t h e  
pl i t f n h b i d w i d a m a p l u l l  
b i p e d p h i l p h i l p e c u l t i

F d t l d f m a t i m the m a p l a e t s  
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T P U T O S T I U R A N U S V E L S e l o  
A T T I D A S T R O N O M I C L I S T R U M E N C E L E S T I A L M E T  
V I C I A C E R E E R T H O R B I T A L M I T I O N  
E R O N P F R A T I O N ( A S T R O N O M Y ) P L A N E T R  
T I F I C I L R A D I A S T R O N O M Y S O L A R S Y S E I T R O  
J A P L V E T

B H g p h y I l V R u I l R S D u e and  
J Q G w e l A : m y o l 1915 W V  
c m t C i l l f h 1913

Planet artificial

A m a m d b j e c t l h e d t o m b e d  
th c n t C R I S T I A L M E C H A N I C S ) The f i t t  
r i f i l p l n t i f i l s o l r e l l t e r  
M e c h t ( l l l l k ) J a c h d J u n y 2  
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t h t l d g t n M h 3 199  
M e c h t n l u d g t f i l l g w i g h s b o t  
1900 l l f w h c m t i m t t n a d t h



Pl t d P e V a 26- phe q p p e d w h  
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d e p w f t h 150- w t t o d o r m t r d a s  
o t d c e f f c t m t Th 95-lb l l e w  
l n h e d M h 1960 t o o b t r t h S u n b e t w E r t h  
a n d V e t ( N A S A )

p y l a d A p p r x i m a t e l e m e n t s o f t h e o b i t a r e a  
m i m j r a i s o f a b o u t  $107 \times 10$  m i a p i d f  
450 d y a n l i a t o n f l a n e c e n t r i t y o f  
0.148 a p e r b e l t n d t a n e o f  $92 \times 10$  m i w i t h  
e p h o f f r i p s t a g e t h e m d d l o f J a n u r y 19 9  
a n d a p h e l i n d i t c e o f  $124 \times 10$  m i w i t h e p a h  
f f i s t p a s e e a l y S e p t m b r 1959 M e c h t a w a  
l a n h d w h n E a r t h w a s a t p e h l i n a n d a t a  
t m t t a k e f l i a d a n t a g e o f b t h t h e e l c i t y o f  
E t h a d t h e p o s i t i o n o f t h M o o n

P o e e I l l u n c h d t o t u d y f u r t h r t h e r d a  
t b e l t a b o u t E a r t h a n d t o d e t e r m e f o t h e r  
s u h e g o n l e f a t h e m s p c e t h a p r u s l y  
p b e d s l o t r k e d b y t a t o n s i n s e v e r a l n  
t n s N a d d i t i o n a l m a j e r a d t i n b l t w a d e  
t e d b y u s t w G e r M l l r c o n t e r A m o n g  
d t a d o e d b k f m t h e 13- l b n t m e n t e d c o n  
w i n d e t m p e r a t r e i n t h e v i t y o f 41 C.  
O b t l e l t y c m p u t e d f o m l a c h t a j e c t r y  
t o b 69 400 m p h m a y o a o f a b t 98 x  
10 m l s a p e o d o f 392 d a y s a p h e l o n d i s t  
t f 91 744 000 m w i t h f i t p a a g e a l o t  
M c h 17 1959 a n d a n a p h e l o n d i s t n o f 105  
829 000 m w i t h p o h o f f i s t p a s e l t e S e p t m  
b r 19 9 S S A T E L L I T E , A R T I F I C I A L S P A C E V E H I  
C L E

[ C D V ]

Planetarium

A p r j t d e m w h i f t h f l l y p r t r a y s t h e  
h e c n y t m e : t h p a t p e n t , r f u t u  
A p l n t a n m i s e s t a l l y a m l t p l e l d p o  
j e c t a t y p a l p r d u i n g m e t h a 110 p a  
a t e m g e o n a n t e s p h e r c a l p j e t  
r e e n d m A t p i t e e n d o f a t y p c a l p o  
j u i n t r m e n t t w l g b l l e a c l c n  
t i n g l 6 p j e c t o ( F g 1 ) T h e p r j e c t n t  
t h e h t m t i d m m h d 32 p c t u r e w h h



Table 3 Physical elements of planets

Planet and symbol		Equatorial radius		Ellipticity = $1 - r/r$	Volume ( $\delta = 1$ )	Mass ( $\delta = 1$ )	Density g/cm	Escape velocity km/sec	Rotation period	Tilt of axis
		$r$ km	( $\delta = 1$ )							
Mercury	♿	0 38	400	0 000	0 055	0 0 3	5 3	4	8 9 d	small
Venus	♀	0 97	6200	0 000	0 91	0 815	4 9	10 3	weeks <sup>3</sup>	3 1
Earth	♁	1 00	6378	0 0031	1 00	1 000	5 52	11 2	23h56m41s	34
Mars	♂	0 53	3400	0 00	0 150	0 107	3 9	5 0	4h3 m	2 0
Jupiter	♃	11 20	71400	0 062	1317	318 00	1 33	61	9h 0m30s	31
Saturn	♄	9 4	60100	0 096	769	9 2	0 69	3	10h14m	6
Uranus	♅	3 4	3800	0 06	50	14 55	1 56		10h49m	98 0
Neptune	♆	3 50	2 300	0 0	1	17 23		25	1 h40m	98 0
Pluto	♇	1 2	6100?	?	1 2	0 9	5 2	10 2	16h	?

To be perpendicular to orbit

Latitude < 1° (system I) 9h 5m40 6s latitude > 1° (system II)

Near Equator 10h38m at intermediate latitudes

Colons indicate uncertain determinations

$m/M$  of the masses of the Earth and the Sun can be determined similarly planetary masses are also known in terms of  $m$

If the planet has no satellite (Mercury Venus Pluto) its mass can be derived only from the perturbations it causes in the motions of the other planets and occasionally of comets. Since the perturbations are small the masses so obtained are generally of low accuracy.

Once the mass  $m$  and the radius  $r$  of a planet are known in terms of the Earth's mass and radius its surface gravity and mean density relative to the Earth are given by  $g = m/r$  and  $\rho = m/r^3$  respectively. Multiplication by 981 and 5552 gives the corresponding values in cgs units.

From  $r$  and  $m$  follows also the escape velocity  $V$ , permitting a projectile (or a molecule) to leave the planet on a parabolic orbit  $V = (2Gm/r)^{1/2}$ .

this is  $\sqrt{2}$  times the velocity of an hypothetical satellite moving in a circular orbit close to the surface of the planet (see ESCAPE VELOCITY). The elements are listed in Table 3.

**Rotation periods.** The period of rotation of a planet is best determined by direct telescopic observation of the permanent markings on its surface (Mars Mercury) or of the semipermanent cloud formations in its atmosphere (Jupiter Saturn). When no definite detail can be seen on the disk (Uranus Neptune) the spectroscopic determination of the velocity difference between the opposite equatorial limbs can give in combination with the linear diameter an approximate value of the rotation period unless it is so long (as with Venus) that the shift of the spectral line is not measurable. Finally when the apparent diameter of the disk is too small for either of the two methods (Pluto asteroid) a determination of the periodicity of the light variations if any due to the changing presentation of bright and dark regions of the surface may give a fairly accurate value of the rotation period. The rotation is now reasonably well known for all main planets except Venus as indicated in Table 3.

**Planetary radiations.** The electromagnetic radiation received from a planet is made up of three main components: the visible reflected sunlight, plus some ultraviolet and near infrared radiation, the thermal radiation due to the planet's heat, including both infrared radiation and ultraviolet waves, and the nonthermal radio emission due to electrical phenomena if any in the planet's atmosphere.

**Planetary brightness.** The apparent brightness of a planet can be measured by visual photographic and photoelectric photometry and is usually expressed in the stellar magnitude scale. It varies inversely as the square of the distance from the planet to the Sun and  $\Delta$  to the Earth. The fraction of the incident light reflected at full phase compared with the fraction that would be reflected under the same conditions by a perfect diffuse reflector is called the geometrical albedo. It is a measure of the reflecting power or reflectivity of the planet's surface. The visual albedos of the planets vary between 5 and 70%. See ALBEDO.

**Planetary atmospheres.** The chemical composition of a planetary atmosphere is derived from spectroscopic studies of the absorption band if any present in the sunlight reflected by the planet. The major constituents of the atmospheres of the terrestrial planets are carbon dioxide, water, nitrogen and (on Earth only) oxygen. Of the major planets hydrogen, helium, methane and ammonia.

**Heat radiation.** The heat radiation from a planet can be measured either with a radiometer at wavelengths of 8-15  $\mu$  (which are transmitted by the Earth's atmosphere) or with a radiotelescope at wavelengths between 3 mm and 10 cm. In either case the amount of energy corresponds to that which would be received under the same conditions from a perfect radiator of the same size at a certain temperature  $T$  called the black body temperature of the planet (see HEAT RADIATION, RADIOMETRY). It relates the actual temperature of the planet to the properties of the atmosphere and surface of the planet. When the heat radiation is too weak to be



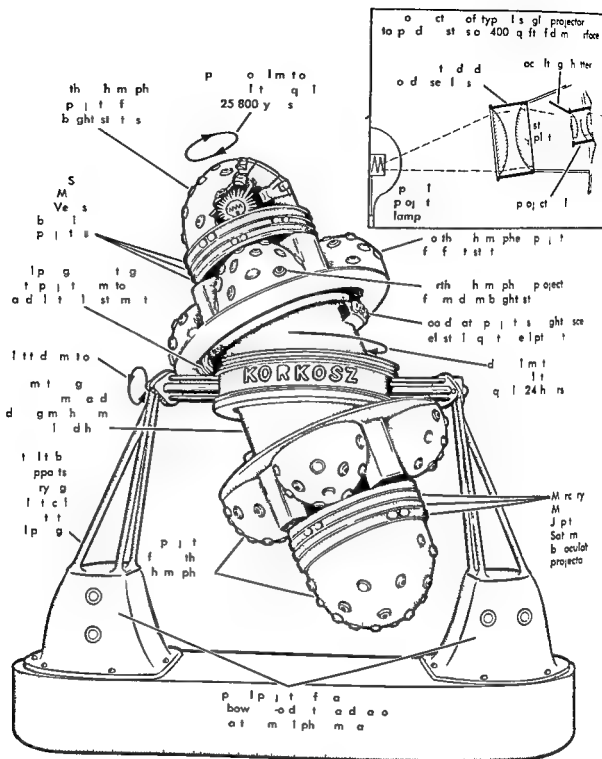


Fig 1 M d planet m p o j t s o e r 9600 tar (R s l l H L o g o d Th Chr t a S e c e M l )

combine to form a representation of the principal stars in both hemispheres including in the case of the largest planetarium stars as faint as magnitude 5.

There are eleven objects—the Sun, the Moon and the five inner planets—which are made to move against the background of the stars by means of paired projectors in the cage that separate the balls from the central portion of the instrument.

Motor provides motion for the planetarium. One set turns the instrument to simulate the daily rotation of Earth. Another set produces annual motion

of the Sun, Moon and planets forward or backward in time. Motion around a horizontal axis is the effect of change of latitude. This permits the light to be seen from any point on the surface of Earth from the North Pole to the South Pole. The motion of precession of the equinoxes, the wobbling motion of Earth's axis, once in 25,800 years, can also be simulated to the extent of completing one 25,800-year cycle in 3 min. See JAFFE 1950, EQUINOXES.

The planetarium chamber can lean up to 15° diameter and can seat up to 750 people (Fig. 1).

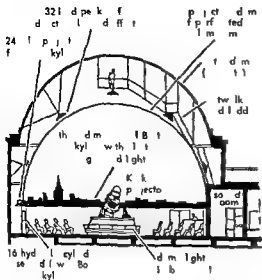


Fig 2 H m p h c i p l t m p d l f o f p k y i d i B s t M m f S )

A p r f a t e d h m p h r l e w h i c h t h e d m p m t t h e g e t i p l f l e c t d u n g d e m t t n { S M L }

### Planetary gear train

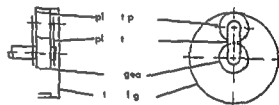
A q u e i m h e d g e m t g f a e n t a l g l n t l i g d e r m t e m d t p l w h h p p i d e i n g f m p l p l e t y g a t e p n m h m l t l y w i t h t w o a a l g ( F 1 ) W i t h t h e e n t l g a f i d i n o t t e b t h t a l g a p l a n t i t b t t n t h m a e m e d d l y A t t h t m r f i x d t t h n p l n e t f t a s p o l d h e e t h e c m b l y a f r m f p l m t n T h e p l n t l t h c i o p e t t e t h n d t t r m p l t m m b e

f n p e t p u t p w d m m b o f p l t r y g t a d m m b d t p d t h t t n d t h t h i d m m b f i d l f t t f i d n p w t t r m t t d

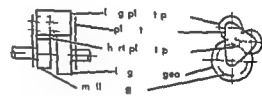
l l o h t h e g e a r t a i T h e c l a c t e r t e p r o d e o n e n t l i c h a c t a f r a k e l a n d a r o n d t h e i n t e r m e d i a t e m e m b r a d f i e d t o t h e g e a r h u n g e r v e s t o l o c k o f f w i t h t h e r d m e m b e r w i t h u t i t I f e n t r i m t t h e i t h o f p o w e r t r a n m i i n A n y o n o f t h e t h r e e e l e m e n t s c a l e f e d t h e c t l i n g e t h e p l n e t a r e r t h e i n t e r n a l r i g g e a P w e c d i e e t h r f t h e t w o r e m a i n i n g e l m e n t a d d t h e t h e r c a n d e l e r t h e o u t p t T h e a t h v m b i n a t i o f p e d r a t i w i t h a s g l e p l n a r y g r r t r i n w i t t h e c e l e n g r i p c a l p e t u e l y f t h o t h e r t h r e T h e m a i n p a l p e e d a t o s f r m p l e g a r t r i n a r e w i t h i n t e r n l g a r f i x e d l i g e p e e d r e d u t i o ( F i g 1 )

$$\frac{\omega_b}{\omega} = 1 + \frac{\lambda}{\lambda}$$

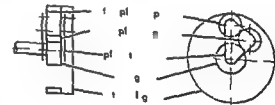
w i t h u g e a r f i x e d m a l l s p e d r d t i ( F i g 1 b )



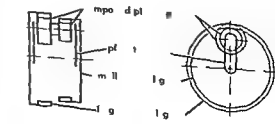
SIMPLE PLANET



EXTERNAL PLANET



DUAL PLANET



COMPOUND PLANET

Fig 2 F m m g m t f p l t y g

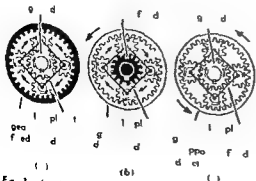


Fig 1 (a) Th m p l g t r p p l m d f p f



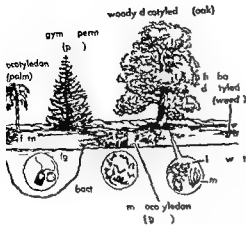


Fig 2 Plant types

o a limited chem of growth bec u the mbry n rgrowth t f n u e d up t the oc f m t u t (3) Al m t all plant h a e fairly firm t u t u a l f a m w k o f c e l l u l o e a m p l x b h d a t c o m p n d w h h a m a y r t u n t o f p l a t e l l w l l M t m l h w n e l a k l u l a n d t h r l l s a l m t u s a l l y l d i s o f t m e m b a a t t e t h g d w l l (4) T h a t m a y t v o f a m l h t h p e r f l m t m w h e r e a n l y c e r t t p l a t h a t h b u l t y t m o e f r m p l e e t t l e

T h l o w f r m f l f t h t a n o t b p f i l l y l f i d a e t h p l a t o u m l l a c b e e f t l y l l d p l t m l T h M a b d e d C W M n b n t a l l t h l u m w l d M y m y c e t h l s l y g t h e m p l t w h m A L i t z o o l g t c a l l t m M y e t o z o u t h p l a g t h m t h e t e g y f a m l L k w e r t m b l e l l d g r e n g w u h a C A l m y d m a s f l a n d P a n d o g a d d b y t h b t n t s p l t b t d e d m l s b z o o l g t M t b l g t g h o m t h p l n t a n n m l f d m n t l y a l k n d h e o l d f m m m m t o d i f g p r d t t u m D u l y d e c t l y p l t p r d m a n d h d m t m l s w l t h l t h l o o d d w t h h t h p r o d t l u m b r k t e t l f i b e r d g g c b l i g u m n r b b p e g e s u m d r u g b e g d y t n g m a t l w n d p p

P l t g f o m m o p n e c l l d g m h b a t a d s o m l g e t g t t r e e s ( F e r ) F a c l l t n f t h e p l t t m P l t r k t g o o s s f P l a r t o y P l a r t p h y s i o l o g y f l a t t a x o n o y [ r ]

### Plant mineral nutrition of

M i l i t t h p e s b y w h c h a p l t a g d t m r a l l m t T l n t B f m r l l m t s i t p l n t s t m e d b r p t f q u t t l y t o p l n t s a t w i t h d p l t t h g d u f e

Table 1 Size and distribution of soil particles typical of

Particle size	mm	μm	Clay	Clay
Coarse	0.0-0.0	6	30	1
Fine	0.0-0.0	0	30	9
Clay	0.0-0.00	5	0	0
	Bl w 0.00	10	0	0

From J Bo A W C i t n P n e p l f l l t Ph l o g y W l l F e e m 19

S u b e q u t d i s t r i b t n o f m n e a l w t h n p l m t a c c o m p l i s h e d t h g h t i e p o e f t r n l a t n h g s l a n d p l a t g e n e r a l l y a q u i r e t h r m e a l s f r m t h o o t m e d u m u a l l y m t w l L e f f e t e l y t h e y m a y d i e t h e l l a n e a t h r o g h t h l a e f m d t a r l a r a i n a n d s p r a y s F o r a b s o r p t i o n b y p l a n t m i n r a l g n e a l l y m u t b e i n t h e f o m o f a l t a n d l u t i n s w a t e r d t h e m i n e r a l e t e t t e p l a n t a s d i s s o c i a t d i

I o n i z a t i o n o f m i n e r a l s i n s o i l s T h e m i n e r a l m a t t e r i n s o i l s d e r i v e d f r o m p a t r o c k t h o u g h w t h e r n g P a r t i c l e a r y n s a f m n d t o c l a y ( T a b l e 1 ) S o i l s t a t u e d p e n d p a r t i c l e s d i s t r i b t n c h e m i c a l m p t o m i t t e t e t e a t i a n d m r o b l o g a l p p l a t i ( e S o i l ) I n m o t l c h e m i c a l c o m p o u n d o f m i n e r a l s p a s s i t q u e o u s s o l u t i o n T h e m p o n d s d o c a t e t o a m d g r e t h e n s e i s t i n g i n l u t i n l e s f r e e l y a d b e d t o i l l a d l a y p t l e s A t e a d y t a t e a p p r a h d b e t w e t h i n s i n l u t i n d t h e s s o t e d w i t h t h e l i d p h a ( F i g 1 ) T h e m n a l o s e n m o m w t h i n t h s i l a n d i n t p l t l l o r o t s P l a t r e s d u e s i n t h e l u r f h r z o n m y a l o t r b u t e m n e a l m a t t e r i t h e l o r t b q u a n t e r p N i t r g e n n e f m s u h a m m a m n i t r t n d n i t r a t e e x

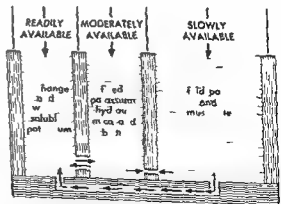


Fig 1 S k m t l l t t f l i b i l i t y o f p l t t m o f c o m p l e x d w t h t l e m t p o m d t f m t f o m t g r y t a t h A r w d t t h d e t f t m t s a d t h w d t h e e t t h m p d t h e t f f m t ( F m e t d M f n i t t p l t u n f w 1951)

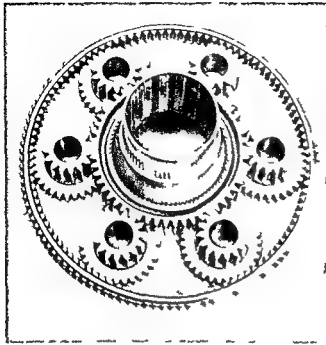


Fig 3 S compound planetary pinions transmit high power from arc flight engine to propeller with about 21 speed reduction (Foot Bothe G a a d Mach e Co p)

$$\frac{\omega}{\omega_b} = 1 + \frac{N_b}{N}$$

with planet carrier fixed reverse speed increase (Fig 1c)

$$\frac{\omega_b}{\omega} = -\frac{N}{N_b}$$

where  $\omega$  is angular speed  $N$  is number of teeth and the subscripts identify the members  $a$  for planet carrier  $b$  for sun gear and  $c$  for internal gear

This speed changing feature is used in automotive automatic transmissions. The number of teeth on the planet pinion of a simple planetary gear does not enter into the equations for speed ratio because the pinion engages both sun and ring gear hence the teeth of all gears are the same size and the number of teeth on each gear is directly proportional to gear diameter. The above equations can therefore be expressed in terms of gear diameters in stead of numbers of teeth.

Planetary gear trains can be variously modified for added flexibility (Fig 2). Such gear trains provide large speed ratio in small space. With multiple pinions they transmit large power (Fig 3).

The aircraft engine drives the outer ring gear of Fig 3 the central sun gear is fixed the planet carrier arm omitted in Fig 3 to which compound pinions have tub shaft that carry the planet pinions in the manner of the cage of a ball bearing. The main shaft of the planet carrier passes through the opening in the sun gear to drive the propeller. The use of an internal gear accounts for much of the power capacity and meshing of the gear train. See GEAR TRAIN.

## Plant

A common term loosely used to designate any living organism not included in the animal kingdom. In the higher forms of life a clear distinction can be made between plants and animals (Fig 1). However some of the lower organisms possess both plant and animal characteristics.

Although no single criterion can be used to separate all plants from all animals certain features taken collectively provide a general basis for distinguishing between the two kingdoms of organisms. (1) Approximately five-eighths of the 300,000 known plants have chlorophyll a complex of green pigments which enables them in the presence of light and air to synthesize carbohydrate foods. Such plants are said to be independent, in contrast to bacteria, fungi, and nearly all animal organisms that have no chlorophyll and are therefore dependent upon chlorophyll-containing plants for their supply of carbohydrates. (2) The embryonic tissues in most plants are abundant, persistent and active thus permitting an almost unlimited growth. Most animals on the contrary

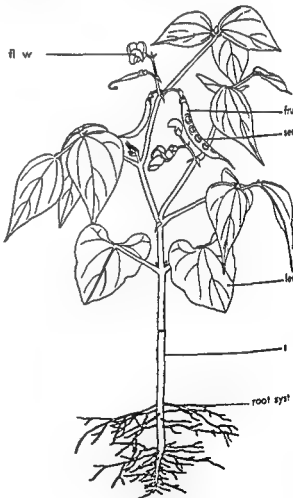
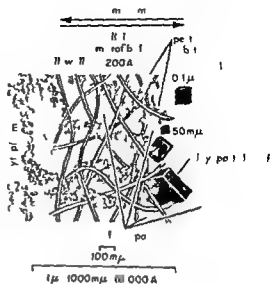


Fig 1 Diagram of a complete herbaceous dicotyledonous plant showing growth and production of new food and the reproductive organs (stamens and pistil) (Horticultural Encyclopedia)

ent at o l o n c t t s a l i n f l u e n c e  
a l b i l i t y f a d o b e d i n t p l a n t  
I m n r a l n u t r o a b i l i t y u a l l y a e r  
i n e d b y h a t l e m n t t h p l a t a q u r d a g  
o w t h B c a u e o f t h e j u n t l a t r l i t n i p  
i f f c t o f f i l a n d e l m e n t a w e l l  
i d e d i n f l u e n c e e q u i t y T h e t y p n d  
s t a n t f i d e l p m e t c a n s f l e c p r c u e n t  
o f i s f m t h e s o l W h e t h r p l a n t w l l  
e v e l p d p d n p a t t n d e t n t o f i  
v l b i l i t y t h l W a y s l h a e l m e d  
v l b i l i t y o f r u n s F r p l a n t n t o  
n l y t h e o n c o n d i t a l t g r o w t h  
e d b i d e d T h e k d f l m t u n i s d e n d e n t  
t h p a t r k m p t n t h t r u e  
e f t h e l y m e a l l a h g f e c t m c r o l  
g a l t i t e s d n r n m i l n d t n  
t h u a t a t e s l f a t m b d f e t b e e  
f i t e d m o b l g i l t y o l e h n  
o t a m m y b e l m t b e c f i f a t o n  
l a y l l d s p h o p h a t e m y b e f d n t h e r y l  
t t e f f i m e l m m b l d b y f r m a  
o f i l b l e m p u d a s f o x m p l w i t h  
l m u m o a l m c a l n m y b e d f i e n t  
e c o f t h e a d r a t i o n f i b l a t  
n u m ( n t e o g n e d t b e e a l t g r w t h )  
n y b t i b e o f e a l b i l i t y

# ANATOMY AND MINERAL NUTRITION

I d d l l g l l f p l t c m p l e t  
t f r b p t f m e l t n t T h l  
g y t p l a m b u d d e t r l l y b y a l l w a l l  
d g e n a l l y n t r a l l y b y a d t a g e o s  
p h t h u l e ( C E L L O R G A N I Z A T I O ) M  
r l a b p t n p a f r m t h e x t e l h a t h  
g a l u t m d u m n t d h g h t h c e l l  
l l T h l l w a l l u u l l y p e b l e t b h t h  
t h l t n d l e t A l i h g h t h m b  
m t t t t m m n t w t h t h l l w a l l  
d f l u t h g h t l a t l y f e O n m y e n  
t h s o l l l w a l l a p p h g n  
t u r y q u a l n t t h e x t l l i o  
( m d f i d f o n e t t i l l o d l  
f e n p o p o u n t d r p t ) T h t h  
l l w a l l s o l t b m t h e p t p l m b t h  
g m d m ( F g 2 )  
R t t h p r r y b b g o g n f h g t e r  
l n d p l t r m e w t a a l g u t t h l l  
T h f a e f o o t s a b h t d b y t h l r  
t h r l u t m e d m S o m e w h t l f t l v  
( g d t a d l l y w d ) t h t e l l  
l o o t d i d u l l b t h e d b y t h m  
l i g h t l m o d f d l u r w h t n m l  
n l m n f i l m r M o d f i t d p e d  
r t a d d g f a t m t f t d t t  
w t h t e r a l l t w h h n t r m d t  
m n e d b y t h l l w l l p r m b l t t h r t f  
t m l n w a d f i e d w a t r d t h e  
p p l v f m t r n a t u A t t h e d o d m  
( t h m t l f t h t ) C a p a  
t i p m p e d f i b d e v l p e l y n d f r m  
n t i y w t h t t s e e d  
d l l l l T h e s e t p h i g h l y i m p e r m e



F g 2 M d l f b d r y g n o f o t s u f a  
d g w t h m d m ( F m H f y d J G f  
M d f t r y f a t i m t p l i t S e  
12890-91 1958)

b l t o t t h l n t n d o l t e c m p e t f o  
l t o n T h t h c e l l l a y r m u t b e c i m n t e d  
b y t h e p a s g f m t r i a l i n t a n d t h g h y  
t o p l a m L a t a s i m l a r i m p e r m e a b l e s l t a n c e  
s l a d d w n t h t a n g e t i a l w a l l s o f m o t  
f t h e d d r m l e l l t h e f e w n t s d i f f r e  
t e d r e m f r a t m e n t h p r i m y d t n  
a p a g e l l I n t u m a l l e n d o d m a l c e l l m a y  
a t t n t h e e c d y d t i a n e f f e c t e i f  
n t m p l t b i e r t o p a s s a g f m t r a l s r d  
a l l y a r s s r o t W h e n t h s c o d t n o b t p e n  
e t t n o f m e a l t t h t h y l e m c d u t i s  
e f f t d l y d e l o p m e n t f r e c o d a r y r o o t s w h h  
p e e t h e e d d e r m O n l y t h m r t m i s r e l a  
t e l y f e o f u h b e i z a t e E n n t h t i e  
m h a e g g e d t t h a t i m d p e r m e a b i l i t y  
x t d e t m d f e d e l l w a l l m p t n m  
f l u f n m y b l m i t e d d u e t p o t n o n o f t h  
m e t m i e l t o t o t h e b t h i n g n e d u m o r  
b e t h e m e s t e m s n e l o e d b y t h m p e m e a b l e  
r o t e p A t t h a t e o f c e l l d i a n d  
l g m t n t h m i t e m m a y b e h a s o e f  
f e c t e n t l y o m p l t a b r p t o n d t n t o  
o f m l l h h e n t e r t h c e l l f m x t e n l  
s o u c e O l d r r o t l e t e p h y s l g l l y  
a c f t e o e e d b l a y e f o k ( u b e d e )  
l l s w h a v r y i m p r m e a b l t m e r a l s a l t  
d w a t r S b z t u f o l d e r e p d r m l c e l l s i s  
m l l y r t r u e O l y f i f i s u e d l o p i f  
u t e l y a l o g h d f i p m e a b i l i t y t  
m t e l s f b l n d b o r t o f f i e t e d p  
d d f o r s e t h a t o t h r f a t m t w h c h  
e c r y f m e m t  
E h y t e m c l l o i n t e g r t d r t i d y  
m d f i e n t l l y p m b l m o t s y t e m l n  
d l h l t y f m a l t p l n t s e f f e c t d  
t h g h g r w t h f o f o o t o t d e  
l p m e t f n w t h a n d f m t



Table 2 Effect of growing crop on composition of soil solution

Soil	Date	pH	Parts per million of displaced solution†								Total Ks
			NO -	HCO -	SO -	PO -	Ca +	M +	Na +	K	
Simple 7 1.5% moisture	Apr 30	7.1	119	83	561	11	1	91	4	1	1190
	Sept 1	7.6	58	155	13	0.6	193	1	40	9	930
	Apr 28	6.6	9	112	699	0.6	336	5	59	1	177
Simple 11 1.0% moisture	Apr 30	8.2	13	160	671	3.3	197	9	8	41	1641
	Sept 1	7.6	16	34	598	1	197	61	44		111
	Apr 8	8.1	263	59	785	2.9	216	91	18	3	1783

After Burd and Martin from E. J. Russell *Soil Conditions and Plant Growth* Longmans Green 1940

† Solutions displaced by water from cropped soil at the beginning (April) and end (September) of growing season and at the beginning of the next growing season

ist in soils through fixation from air of the oil by means of oxidation reduction processes of bacteria (see NITROGEN CYCLE). The ionic state of soil sulfur may be similarly modified

**Ion concentration of external solution** The oil solution is the natural external solution bathing roots or rootlike structures of land plants. Soil composition cannot be measured in its natural position in soils at moisture contents between the field capacity and the wilting percentage and supporting usual growth. Dilute aqueous extracts have been obtained and analyzed from which approximations of oil solution content have been computed. Agricultural soils under favorable moisture condition contain about 0.1% of soluble mineral matter. The osmotic pressure value of soil solutions varies from about 0.2 to 1 atm. total solid vary from about 500 to 2000 parts per million (ppm) of displaced solution (see PLANT WATER RELATIONS OF). Even at low oil moisture content the oil solution of leached agricultural soil is generally very dilute being  $\frac{1}{2}$  to  $\frac{1}{1000}$  the concentration of sap removed from roots. Soil solutions of arid and of semiarid irrigated soils have higher salt content. The ionic balance in such soils is also characteristically differs from that in soils of humid region. In the former (arid) calcium and sodium salts of sulfates and chlorides may predominate in the latter (humid) hydrogen ions may be pronounced in the colloidal clay exchange complex. Total salt content and ionic balance in oil solutions vary under cropping with partial or complete recovery from plant absorption occurring during fallow periods (Table 2). Over a period of year the total salt content of a soil become depleted under continuous cropping. Depletion of the ion content of soil solutions is not always evident from soil solution analysis; there is some renewal through progressive dissolving of mineral or replacement from the exchange complex of the oil colloid. Absorption of phosphate by plants is not readily reflected by measurement of concentration decreases in the oil solution. Much of the supply is derived through progressive solution from the exchange complex of the parent minerals. Maintenance of total salt supply and balance especially for nitrate and sulfate is effected also through activities of soil microorganisms under adverse conditions (for example anaerobic)

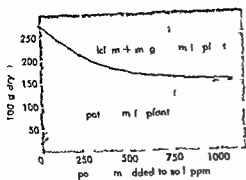
such activities may lead to depletion of certain ions such as nitrate. Mineral solubilities vary with acidity alkalinity relation and the moisture content of soil. Nitrate and chloride concentrations vary inversely with moisture percentage whereas phosphate concentration though varied from soil to soil is independent of oil moisture content. Sulfate is intermediate. The relative proportion of cations in the oil solution depends on their solubilities in the mixture. Dilution causes smaller decrease in concentration of the monovalent than divalent ion. Availability or mobility of essential elements in solution is the first requisite to absorption by roots.

**Kinds of available ions** Essentially all ions present in the soil complex are available in some degree to plant roots. Plant analysis shows a large number of different elements derived from soil. These include all those essential to growth as well as many which serve no required role in development of plants according to present knowledge. Theoretically all ions in external solution are available as well as much of those adsorbed on soil particles. Some potassium other than that readily exchangeable from oil by usual laboratory chemical means is derived from the old phase (Table 3). Availability bears no relation to total potassium content or its relative proportion in the soil. The mobile concentration (activity) and permeability of the medium determine the availability. Temperature moisture supply and hydrogen ion concentration are factors modifying the mobility.

Table 3 Potassium uptake by crops compared with potassium depletion in soil solution

Potassium soil content ppm		Potassium depletion in soil solution		Absorption by crop ppm
Before	After	Depletion of K in soil	Depletion of K in soil	
R & M	ppm	ppm	ppm	
10	8	8	0	101
10-1	1	8	1	8
15-0	17	1	6	116
0-		11		133
10-4	41	11	1	161
1	0	16	11	16

1 m l J l well soil Co d l n s d Pl l Growth  
Lo gm % C c e 19 0



3 ft 1 ft m (absorpt by  
 is C d Mg bol ff b pro  
 d mlt f K d (fom  
 R H gl d t c f m th f gu Nut d  
 Pl f Ch a B t a 1944)

l d m m a u the by Hyd g a d f y  
 y l a d a b n n d o g n a d i n s e f  
 t y f l e t h e b a l n t h s i l t  
 l modified by t m p e a t r e m t u e o n t e n t  
 d t s o f m c r o g r m and plant as  
 l l a b y p p l i a t o f e r t i s b y m a n T h s e  
 t e n f l e t d t c f n the kind of a a i l  
 b l o s f p l n t i t t h r t h y m o d i f y  
 h r l l f m o b i l i t

With absorpt f m n a l a b s by p l m n t  
 o f t e p o e d (F g 3) A d  
 t e d l a t d f e t a f f i n g m n r i t  
 i n p l a t t h a b l e l e l i n e a t n e r y  
 m o d i f t h a b p t o f n t h t n o o  
 m l t a t i n o b t o a n T h e p e n  
 f d t l e n t g e a l l y t a r d a b p t  
 f m a l t T h p e n e i p l v l e t  
 h w e n h n e t h a b p t f m  
 m n l t i n E f f i f t h t e p b  
 b l y d t h g h n e s o m e t b l m f  
 t h l l t h p r m e a b l i

#### PROCESS OF MINERAL ABSORPTION

A b p l t i l l p i e t m o  
 m t n w d i n t n f i f m l i s f r m a n  
 t a l l i n m e d u m b t h g c l l t  
 g a h a t t p p l m t h r u g h  
 i t p h n t t t h p i p l a m A t y p a l  
 t l p h e l l a u t t h r a l l  
 t v t m f h g l d p l t e l ( s l e m )  
 f S e t g l y f t h t f  
 m o d f d m m t w i t h t h l i n g m e m b e  
 p t p l m n t p d f i t w e t o q o  
 p h f m d f m r t a b s o p t n a  
 m e d i p l d f m n d f l m x  
 h g d p t n n d m t b o l ( t )  
 m l a t t l f t h e m h n m s l t h  
 m g t u f t h r l s r l g  
 f a s o l t d l t m y m e l t e t t h  
 t h d p n d t l y l t t m l m t  
 g b o d y T h d d u l m g t n i d t i  
 g l e d f r m m f w n w h t h e t w o l t  
 g d u l n t r t g t h n l a t o t m l m  
 u n g t d y f s p l t h u g h p p

co t n u s p r e y t e m T h u a f i f t h m o d e f m o e  
 m n t ( m a s m e m e n t ) r e g n i z d a n d m a y l e  
 m l d e d i n a b r i t i t l g h t h n t u r e s o f t h e  
 f i x t e n d e n c e d f i e r b e t w e n c o n t i n u e n t c o m p o n e n t m i g r a t o a n d c m p u s e f f w

Diffusion of ions into plants Simple diffusion of mineral salts will tend to occur wherever a difference of concentration (activity) of an salt exists between two regions that form a region of great concentration of the salt in a region of low concentration. This may in time lead to equality of concentration of the two regions (dynamic equilibrium). The mode of flux across a differentially permeable protoplasm is very slow. The rate of diffusion depends upon the permeability of the medium and in part on the concentration gradient. Diffusion is directly affected by inhibitors of metabolism. It is relatively dependent upon activity (pff) of the water potential coefficient characterizing physical processes of movement. However, in a liquid solution, it is only a simple step in the mineral ion to the root surface. It probably is effective in the movement of the high cell wall and in the exchange also may be effective here. Since there appears to be fairly free diffusion through cell wall and no ice channel may be continuous through the cell wall to the cell wall into the fluid lumen or films may substitute an outer space, a tum which is used, this is clear. The rate of the outer free passage of the plant is determined by the warant of the rate that the ut pac entium also includes the potential of the plant. The plant is like place the plant. Although little of the plant is protoplasm by diffusion when in tabular accumulation is inhibited. While cumulation of the plant is not possible, which is diffusion, simultaneous of the cell system. It may be premed however that the same diffusion process is present and favorable metabolic conditions. When the concentration is specific, the plant is the same outside the system, the plant is the same outside the system, the plant is the same outside the system.

Donnan equilibria The tendency to arise when a ratio of charged particles such as a liquid molecule complex in a way related to its chemical interaction with a liquid rapidly moving particles of a Donnan effect just as if the particles and were separated by a membrane and by a difference in velocity. For a typical example, the following concentration ratios would be approached:  $\frac{[Anions]}{[Cations]} = \frac{[Cations]}{[Cations]}$   $\frac{[Anions]}{[Anions]} = \frac{[Cations]}{[Cations]}$

$$\frac{[Anions]}{[Anions]} = \frac{[Cations]}{[Cations]}$$

which is the ratio of the plant and the plant is the same outside the system, the plant is the same outside the system, the plant is the same outside the system.

Table 4 Differential accumulation of ions in two species of *Halocystis*

Ion	Sea water	<i>H. ovalis</i>	<i>H. ovalis</i> host
	Molar	Molar	Molar
Cl <sup>-</sup>	0.57	0.55	0.60
Na <sup>+</sup>	0.50	0	0.56
K <sup>+</sup>	0.01	0.3	0.006

## Differences

<i>H. ovalis</i>	(Cl <sup>-</sup> ) 0.55	(Na <sup>+</sup> ) 0.50	(K <sup>+</sup> ) 0.01
	0.5	0.2	0.3
<i>H. salina</i>	(Cl <sup>-</sup> ) 0.60	(Na <sup>+</sup> ) 0.50	(K <sup>+</sup> ) 0.01
	0.5	0.56	0.006

Comparison are made of the concentration of the principal ions between the two species and the concentration in the bathing medium under natural conditions

secondary roots. Thus the plant progressively taps new volumes of soil and increases the acquisition of mineral nutrient.

## HEREDITARY ABSORPTION POTENTIAL OF SPECIES

The hereditary potentialities of a species are predetermined by its ancestry and are fairly constant. These limit and determine the internal physicochemical conditions and the extent to which processes may proceed in plants. This is exemplified in the differential movement of inorganic soluble ions into and their accumulation within specific organisms. Although exposed to like external conditions two distinct genetic types may exhibit different permeabilities to and net absorption level of inorganic solutes. Environmental factors may alter the internal conditions and processes of an organism but the extent of the effect will be limited by genetic potentialities. Under similar natural or experimental conditions different species vary characteristically in the extent to which certain ratios of ion accumulation develop within them (Table 4). These levels appear to be unrelated to the essential to growth processes of the organism; they often represent luxury absorption or relative exclusion of ions and may in olive types of ions not now recognized to be necessary for development of the species.

**Cell membrane permeability.** The condition of permeability is important. With a boundary limiting passage of materials, inorganic solute absorption can be controlled or restricted. Permeability, the opposite of resistance to movement is a property of a limiting structure or membrane particularly the protoplasm including the restricting surfaces thereof.

Several theories have been proposed to account for the differential permeability of living surface to penetration of solutes. Accumulation of oriented molecules of lipoproteins and phospholipids at interfaces has been proposed. Studies with relatively nonpolar substances led to the lipid theory. This is a solution hypothesis of permeability which assumes that the penetration of different substances is in proportion to their solubility in the lipidal substances of the limiting surface. These are compounds, however, which are lipid soluble and yet

have been found to enter living cells rather than to. To meet this objection the solution theory is combined with the concept of ultrafiltration through a sieve-like nature of the protoplasmic surface. In this case the rate of migration of a substance into a cell would be related to the size of its existing particles or aggregates relative to the limiting surface serving as an ultrafilter. Molecules of the protoplasmic surface or structural changes from time to time have also been proposed. Characteristics of protoplasm as a whole or of limiting surfaces such as these are no doubt involved in multiple diffusions, Donnan effects and possible changes in adsorption which are discussed in the section of this article on the processes of mineral sorption. Rates of penetration even for electrolytes such as mineral salts or their ions could be adequate if the limiting thickness is small and intensity gradient for migration great.

Considering the protoplasm as a living differentially permeable membrane, no doubt its permeability is also dynamic and determined by different metabolic processes within it. Permeability for all kinds of movement of mineral ions into and across protoplasm are therefore controlled dynamically by the colloidal state or organization of protoplasm under any condition of metabolism. Protoplasmic activity also determines the accumulation of solute. For metabolic accumulation the secretory processes across protoplasmic membrane of interaction between ions and protoplasmic membrane. Thus permeability becomes a quantitative concept which is related to metabolism and the state of protoplasm as a whole across which movement occurs. This proposal of a dynamic metabolism controlled differential permeability of protoplasm and movement into and across it helps to elucidate the concept of the hereditary absorption potential of species. Thus the rate to which a specific ion accumulated or excluded is determined by the specific metabolic conditions in the protoplasmic species and is limited in extent by its hereditary potential. The mechanism for penetration and retention is discussed in this article under metabolism of absorption in cells.

**Iononic effects.** There are many interionic effects in the soil-plant system. The soil is a dynamic system in which ions within the solution and soil colloidal phases. Within the soil solution and colloidal phases occur as in the multiple multisalt solutions. The exchange are of consequence in the mineral nutrition of plants since in general separate ions are absorbed by roots. However there are continuous interchanges of cations between solution and soil colloidal water movements supplying a changing bathing solution for colloidal in particular local changes in the ionic balance between solution and cells can occur. The ionic makeup of the solution can modify the colloidal dispersion and the permeability of the cell membrane. It can also modify the rate of solution from the parent mineral phase to the solution from the lattice of the

Table 5. Certain relationships between the amount of oxygen consumed and the rate of respiration by the isolated barley roots

F p e m t a l e o d t		% l i c o t t e r c o t r o l	% C O t t e r c o t r o l	
Co t r o l	t	0 C	100	100
K B 0 0 0	M	0 C	00	1
K B 0 0 0	M	0 5 5 C	1 0	0
K B 0 0 0	M	0 C	9	40-60
K B 0 0 0	M	K C N 0 0 0 1 M	90	■
0 C				

a m l a t n d i t l r i n d c t l y m o l v e s t h e  
t a b o y l c a d y l t h e d h y d g n e f a o  
p t d e y i o c h o m e r T h e e q u e n c e r i m  
p r i c f e h p e s e n t l y k n o w n I n h i b i t o r  
o f o x d t e m e t b l i m e s t r t m t a b o l a c u m u  
l i d r b e s p t o n a m a n r m l a  
t f f e c t s o f a b i t h u g h t h r e p i m e  
t a b l m f f e t e d m y d f f E h a n c e d m e t b o i  
c u m l i t n f l t a o e t e d w t h a n m e d  
a b e s p a t o a t T h u h i g h g e a l e f f e c t  
o c f b n o d r e t p o u n a l i t y b e t w e n  
t h t h t a l s p a t i a t e r t h e n c h a e d  
t e s p r t i n t e a d t h e a t e o f m n l a b r p  
x i t b e 5)

Outer or free space concept Within self and  
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f e l l s h p t w h h w t l t n  
m a y n h t a t a f i l m l u m s a u l t o f  
p l l a r y d m b i t D f f s f l i t e a m  
p r o c d d l y f g d i t p p e d f i t h  
q u h l a t m d t h r d m  
f i q t e S h s o l u t i o n p a e t m o d  
f e p t f o l o f l f l d w t h l  
t n w o l d b d e d a f r e p  
T h e t m s o l t p p o t p l a m t h  
Q u s d p n m e d r m p t h  
t n p h a f t h d a m l l d l a y t m l t  
d b i f l h t h t h e a p n p o t  
p l m r p r m b l t s o l t e s N o d b t  
t a m i g f p t p l m p l a l m n n t  
t m n i b r e c y t h p t p l m p e h p  
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B t w n e l l f i m p l a z t e s t h  
t l l p h h f i l m f o f t m  
t T h e s e t h n m e d a t h t h g m e d f r  
t h d i d i l l t h t t T h f i l m m y l  
t n m t h g h u t e s n t i t  
p t e d t h b m l d g a b I o t o  
p l m a l l d f i t t c h C a p  
t s p p e f f e c t d i t t b t w  
t t h t n d f p a f o o t  
M a m t f f e e d f i b t e n l l  
m o t d x t l u t l a d t a p p a r n f f e e  
p a a l e s T h t b e d e c t q t e d t h

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Role of carriers S l i d not acc m l i n  
 l ap o w h n the m t c s y t e m f o t a  
 u i n d i n r u s t a b l f r a e b c ( x d a  
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 c m p l e b e t w e n t h e o n s d g a n i t u  
 e t n e d f t h p o t a p l m l a y e r f o l l w e d  
 b y d I n h n d b y t r e a n g t o t h e t h e r  
 d f t h e p r t p l m l y w h d c o i t n  
 u s w t h l a u f t h e d f o m a t i o n f  
 t h a r m l e u l T h e m y t h n m v e  
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 b y p o s e d a d h a p r a t e d I t r o S  
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though generally applicable ionic equilibria of this sort are not usually observable in the over all osmotic systems with living cells. However the Donnan phenomenon may play a highly significant role between protoplasm and the bathing media where a limiting surface is interposed or where great velocity differences of migration exist. Such effects could lead to accumulation in protoplasm. In so far as metabolically produced organic radicals may be involved as the slowly moving or restrained ionic species this mode of absorption may be indirectly sensitive to inhibitors of metabolism and may be pH dependent.

**Ionic exchange.** Colloidal systems are important constituents of living tissues and the phenomenon of exchange adsorption plays a significant role in cellular physiology of inorganic solute absorption. Ions are adsorbed on the surfaces of charged colloids. These may be exchanged for ions of the same sign from the dispersion medium. Usually the exchange is of the nature of a diffusion exchange similar to double decomposition of molecules in solution. With plant systems in which certain ions (for example hydrogen ions) may be continually produced metabolically accumulations of other similarly charged ions from external solutions by exchange are possible. The concept of ionic exchange migration has been extended to include ionic movement from one colloidal micelle to another. Thus the movement of ions along surfaces without intermediate passage into the dispersion medium may be effected (Fig. 4). The best evidence that exchanges take place is indicated by the outward movement of previously absorbed potassium when roots are immersed in external solutions of other monovalent cations. Approximately 10% of the potassium previously intimately associated with root tissues is readily exchangeable. Probably root surfaces and cell walls external to the endodermis are primarily concerned. The adsorption exchange is independent of direct aerobic metabolism. Similar exchanges of anions have been observed. This suggests that although cell walls or chemical components thereof possess an overall negative charge favorable for cationic exchange both negative and positive charges exist here. Exchange reactions are not restricted to mineral ions

of monovalent charge nor to those of low charge value.

**Mineral ion absorption.** A third mode of migration of mineral complementary to Donnan phenomena and exchange adsorption may exist accumulation of mineral ions by adsorption. This is called active or metabolic accumulation and is effected through the direct expenditure of metabolic energy in the protoplasm. The overall movement across protoplasm (radially across cell or a root) is a secretory process. Secretion in other preparation of ions from an external solution through passage through the living protoplasm and their emission into an internal solution. In contrast to other modes of movement metabolic accumulation has a high temperature coefficient characteristic of chemical processes and is dependent on oxidative metabolism.

Diffusion or exchange adsorption of ions may precede or follow metabolic accumulation as initial or final steps or may proceed concurrently with metabolic accumulation provided conditions such as activity difference are favorable. Diffusion or exchange adsorption are probably minor in the over all movement of mineral ions into plant relative to metabolic accumulation. Metabolic movement into and across protoplasm is rapid and therefore requires either a high effective permeability of the protoplasm or a large effective energy intensity gradient through protoplasm or both. It has been proposed that the substance chelates or combines chemically with or is orbited on a constituent of the ectoplasm as a complex. It is still a moot question whether an ectoplasmic membrane or interface controls initial entry through micropores. The same problem though modified due to different conditions is posed for final movement across the endoplasmic membranes or interfaces into internal aqueous phases such as vacuole. Within protoplasm there occur some sort of cytoplasmic interaction or association with the substance migrating. Passage through the protoplasm from ectoplasm to endoplasm may be either by exchanges on metabolically graded complexes or complex movement (carriers). Transfer by the latter would be effected through disturbance of the stability of the complex gradient with the result that the complex in protoplasm association is subsequently broken and the substance released (emitted) to internal aqueous phase. Complex formation appears plausible and would occur gradientwise toward outer protoplasmic site at which the energy level of the substance being metallogically associated would be reduced. Gradientwise toward inner protoplasmic site where the postulated complex is associated due to instability and the substance released the constituent gains overall free energy in accord with its activity increase in solution. At this stage the effective concentration (activity) of mineral ion is greater. The energy transfer is effected by a metabolic reaction within protoplasm mediated through the glycolytic cycle (see Plant Respiration). The metal is associated with the

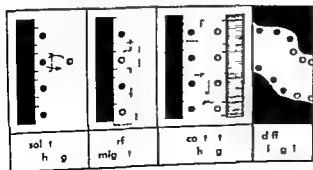
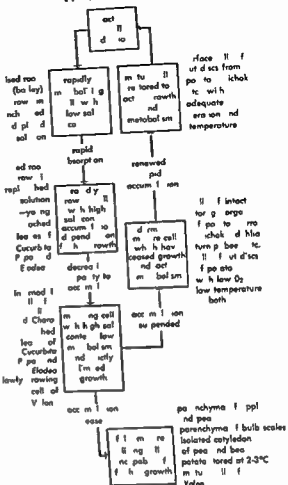


Fig. 4 Diagram of various modes of ion movement especially adsorption exchange (from E. T. Ogden, *Mineral Nutrition of Plants*, Univ. of Wisconsin Press, 1951).

ga ic s l t dep nde t n the supply of  
q t am nts nd type f b t ate fo v d  
m t bol m S g r pply as pat la ly m  
rta the e Uually co d t n fl w salt m  
tr t d h g u r s pply r o r e ly  
gh al ta d l w suga r n p r l l n r o t  
P e m a b i l i t y a d m t b l i s m Th e f t l t r  
n tes d f l e c the extent of metabol c a  
m l t i P e r m b l i t y f l e c t the r t s of each  
nd all the m de of m g r a t o f m e a l n t e n t s  
W h e m t b l i s m f a t o p e r m a b i l i t y c a n t  
o s p a t e d f r m t x p r i m e t l y Th y i  
m t e l y e t e d m e t b l i s m o f the p l s m  
d e t e r m g n l a g m e s p r m e b l i t y  
m o d i f i e d e c t l y l e m e t e t b y o t h r f c  
m w h h l d t r m e t h m t b o l m Th e s  
e v i d e w h h g g e t t h m t b l c a b p t n  
f i m l s t m t e l y l k e d w i t h p o t e s y n  
t h s the c p t y of e l l s r t e s f o f u the  
g r o t h d e v l p m t (F g 5) M r t e m a t  
c l l a r e p r t c l a r l y a t i n c t i d a m l  
t f l s t w h e m t d n c e t l l c a  
b e l m y e v e b e c m e d p l e t d f p o  
m l c t e n t t h u g h r t r l a t P r o d e d  
e g y t e n t y d i f f c e p p a d m o d  
o f t p o r t e t t h e m e r l n t m y  
m w i t h t h p l t t a t p a b l o f c e l l d  
s r e t d g w i t h d d e l p m t Th  
d d t h e p o b l e a d e f f e c t l t s r e  
d b t l e

### Translocation of mineral compounds S l t s

m l a t e d b y a b s o b g e l l o g m t o  
t r m l t e s V a u l o f b o g e l l r e n e  
h l o c t S l t e m y m o e t h g h p o t o  
p l s m b y p g t r m e d t e l o t h r g h  
w l l t i t e l i f e o l t n p a e u c h  
t l e s l a d b t l c t e d t e r m d t  
d t l m f o m l t u b y e l l W h  
l t m b l t l i o n f m t m l t e  
t t h r t e r m l p t n m y o c r Th m j  
p t h w y f a p i d p w d m m e t i n t n  
e p t t p e u e t r e m t h l t a r  
g t h t h g h m s f m t h p t p l m o f  
l l w i t h t h t l Th e m e r l t r i t  
l l e d d m d m p s t f l (m fl w)  
l g t h t l l b d i g t h e y l e m l g  
t h e w y d t h l l f r m l g O t h  
m m f m p m i (t) p s t n f o o t  
t m d t l ( ) p t b y d f f d  
p o b l y b y m m e t t h p h l m S o m e p  
m t l d t g g t i m e d p w d m m e t  
t h g t h p h l m L a t l m m t m y b  
p t l l y f l t t h g h y l m (w o o d) y  
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p h l m — t h m t t h l l f t h t  
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A m g t h q t t t l y d q t p  
f m l t t t t h e t l m e d m a d  
t h m b l i t y f i e d d t t h n  
h m m p l m t m l b r p  
t t o o t a d t l t t h g h p l t  
l l y d l y f l t e d f l l t h e c e a r y l e  
m e n t G l l y d f i y y m p t m m w i t h



F g 5 S h m t l t h p m g m t a t  
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b l i t y m l t l g l t (F m E T g  
e d M I N t t f P l t l l f W  
m 1951)

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t d e q u t f o m m l g r w t h a d d e v l p m e  
t H w e e m o b i l i t y t h e m e d m f  
t e d e q t t h g h l u b l i t e f i t  
e t l i n c c m p t t l t m c  
n b l a n t l l y m a y l m t p m b l i t y  
f o b p t n a d t h s l e d t d e f i c y f e l e  
m t f o m w i t h

**Redistribution of minerals** A e d s t b u t n o f  
m e l s e f f e c t d t h o g h t l t n t h a t  
w h u b s t m u t a f t r m n l o c  
l l g t s m t h p r t f t h e p l a n t  
T h s, f m a m p l m l m a y m f m l d e  
t y g e l f o m l t t h e r c l l  
R t l t n f m t r m a l t e d e p e d o  
t h e b l t y f i t h l l a t e d w t h s c h t t  
t t h l o t t d t h m b l t y o f t h  
T h r t t n d p d s o t h m t b l t t u  
f a m l t n t h e s t e w h s h b l y d  
e s w t h m t g m t c l l o  
w h n l t m m t h y p l l y m p l a m  
l l m t t h e t R t l o c t n g e

thus effecting supply and removal of carrier for the complexing and decoupling stages of protoplasmic interaction with mineral nutrient. According to one theory a polymerization and depolymerization of the carrier occur. All theories rely in some measure on diffusion of the carrier complex through protoplasm. Absorption of cation in one model suggests progress of exchange adsorption along surface not necessarily requiring that the carrier itself move in space. The nature of the carrier is a moot question. The phospholipid system has been suggested specifically for phosphate. Protein as carrier involving their amphoteric nature and possible unfolding and folding for a coacervation (secretory separation and elaboration) and dissociation (secretory emission) respectively has been proposed. Ribonucleoprotein has been considered whereby the nucleic acid portion could "bind" cation and the protein as a carrier.

#### FACTORS AFFECTING MINERAL NUTRITION

External factors and internal controlling conditions influence rate and extent of salt absorption. Of the external conditions aeration, temperature and the supply of water and mineral salt are important. These conditions may alter and determine the internal physicochemical conditions and the relative rate of process some interrelated with absorption.

**Aerobic environment** Such a condition is essential for metabolic accumulation of mineral ion by plants. In culture reduced accumulation becomes apparent when the oxygen concentration in the solution is less than 3-5%. A fair correlation exists between the effect of oxygen upon accumulation and respiration rate increase by comparable units. Probably the permeability to entry as well as the oxidation metabolic processes concerned with the accumulation are affected. Efflux under anaerobic condition is protracted.

**Temperature** Temperature of the environment is a second factor which may influence the rate of physicochemical processes. Increase of temperature is usually associated with an increase in the rate of metabolic accumulation and in the rate of aerobic respiration. Metabolic accumulation has a high temperature coefficient (2 or above) especially in lower temperature range. From the concordance of temperature effect on accumulation and respiration (especially the respiration increase) some interrelation may be inferred between them. The other mode of migration or possible competitive flux of minerals are characterized by low temperature coefficients. As with anaerobiosis, at low temperatures any efflux losses are low and protracted.

**Water supply** The influence of water supply in absorption is indirect. Salt and water migration are independent processes though interrelated insofar as movement of one of the component can alter or determine migration of the other. The movement of water into tissues will dilute the concentration of salts within the system and lower the accumulation

level therein. Paid water absorption as a transpiration will tend to remove salt from the plant sink further lowering the accumulation level. Since metabolic accumulation certainly has characteristic maximum level dilution or removal from within cell will allow or enhance further accumulation. Since absorption is primarily a complexed action water is essential to the association of the constituent salt.

**Supply of mineral salts** The condition is essential. Furthermore, the concentration and relative proportion of mineral ions may alter or restrict further process. The rates of accumulation respiration are enhanced generally by artificial though not necessarily proportionally with increasing concentration of salt solution. Internomic effects were discussed previously in the article very concentration changes modify these effects. Relative rate of anion and cation accumulation may be similar or distinctly different. Excess accumulation of cation over anion is attended by a marked concentration of tricarboxylic acids, succinic, malic acid offsetting the ion absorption difference. Conversely a decrease of such acid compounds will enhance anion absorption. Anion alone may accumulate more rapidly than a diatomic or polyatomic ion.

**Absorption of a particular ion** is influenced by the presence and concentration of other ions whether of similar or different charge and valence. Relative rates of migration among anions are not distinctly modified by the relative importance of the anion mode of movement in a particular case. Internomic effect are not restricted to competitive effect mutually reducing absorption of an ion. Under appropriate conditions the presence of certain ion may lead to increased inward migration of other, however the effect is not observable under condition which inhibit oxidation metabolism. The hydrogen ion concentration of the medium (pH) can influence absorption. Over the range pH 4-8 such effects are small in salt cultures simulating soil solution. The relative absorption of cation to anion is such as to bring the medium toward neutrality that is, on the acid side anions tend to be absorbed more rapidly than alkalis and the converse tendency exists.

**Hereditary limitation** Condition within the plant influence absorption rate or level. The inherited hereditary limitation which through permeability or metabolic control the balance and content of mineral accretion. Characteristically certain species are deficient in calciferon or ilicoon-high in sodium.

**Previous history of tissue** The previous history of tissues will influence subsequent absorption of salt. Prior salt content is a factor. Phloem high-salt plant may not acquire more salt even a growth dilutes the salt content, allowing further acquisition. Root, high in salt, can absorb more, provided the system of the tissue which is involved in the secretory process is eluted and transported to other part of the plant, a with the translocation or excretion of salt.

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adeq at m u t a r d t y p f b t e f r d a  
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p o r t a n t h e e U u l l y m d t n o f l o w s a l t c o n  
n t a t i n a d h g g a p p l y r o e r e l y  
h g h a l t a d l o w g a r p a r l l n l n t s  
P e r m b i l t y a d m t b l m T h e s e f a t r s a l t e  
t h r a t s n d i f f e n t h e e t t o f m e t b o l c a  
u m u l a t i o n P e r m a b i l t y f f e c t t h e r t e s f e c h  
a n d a l l t h e m o d e o f m g t i o f r a m e r i n u e t  
W h e r e m e t a b l m i s a f a t o p e m e b i l t y c a n n t  
b e e p s t e d f r o m i t x p r i m e t l l T h e y a c  
t i m a t e c o n n e c t e d m e t a b o l m o f t h p o t o p l m  
d e r m n g i l a r g e m e a s u r i p e r m e a b i l t y  
m o d i f i e d e c t l y t o a l e e x t e n t b t h r f a c  
t o r h c h l s d e r m n t m t b o l m T h e e s  
v i d c e w h i c h m t s t h m t b o l a b s o r p t i o n  
o f m a n a l s t m a t e l y l n k e d w i t h p o t e n y  
t h e s r t h m p e c t y o f c e l l s r t u n f r f u t h r  
g r w i t h d e l e p m e t ( F m ) M e t m a t  
l l a p a r t u l y e t u i o t u d a m u l  
t n f a l t s w h e m t e a d s a n t e l l c a n  
b l s m a y e e b e c m e d e p l e d f p i  
m l n t n t t h g h r t a n l o a t o P r i d e d  
e r g y n e t y d i f f e n c e s a p r p e r n d m o d s  
f i t p o r t x i s t t h e s m n e r l t e n t m a y  
m o e w t h t h e p l a n t t n t p b l e f c e l l d  
a d t h m s u b l a u s a d f f e t r e l t o s a  
d b a t b l

Translocation of mineral compounds Salt a  
u m l a t e d b y a b r h g c e l l o r g n s m e t  
t e r m a l t e s V e u l e s f b o r b o n g c e l l a r e n e  
u l l a u s o n S o l u t e m a y m o t h g h p t o p l  
m b y p a s s i n g i n t e r m d a t o l e t h r u g h  
w a l l i n t o t r n l f e a l t o p a c h s  
i l s i d b t n l o s t e d i n t e r m e d i a t e  
d t l r g o s t o m l t n b y e l l W h e r  
a l t s m b i l t r l t o n f o r m i a l t e  
t o t h n l p t m y c u r T h m a j o  
p t h w y f r a p d p w d m e m t i n t h e t r n  
p t n o o t p r e s e t a m t h l u s r r i n g  
t h e t h o g h e m e o f m t h e p o t o p l a m o f  
l t w i t h t h e l t T h m n a l t n t s r  
l t d a d m d a a m p s t e f i ( n s f i w )  
l g t h e t l l t d r i n g t h y l e m l n g  
t h e w y n d t h l l f i m l m O t h  
m y m o f m p m i t t e p s t o f r o o t  
t o m d t a l ( e r ) p t s h y d f i n n d  
p o s s i b l y m m e t t h p h l m S o m e x p r i  
m n t l d t g a e s t l m d p w r d m e m t  
t h o g h t h e p h l m L a t e a l m o v e m e n t m a y b  
p t u l r y f l e c t s t h u g h y l m ( w o d ) a y  
F m t h e m — x y l m r t o l e s e t e t  
p h l o e m — t h o m t t h l l f t h e r t s  
b y m g t n a n t h y m y h o p t  
A m g t h e g t t u l y d e q t e p  
f m a l t i t h e t e l m e d m d  
t h m l l t ( n f i e d n d t a t h m n e x  
h g m p l e m a p a t m a l ) a b s o r p  
t o o t d t a l t t h r u g h p l t i  
l l y a d l y f l e c t e d f o r l l t h e r e c e s s a r y l  
m t G l l y d f i c y m p t o m o g r w i t h

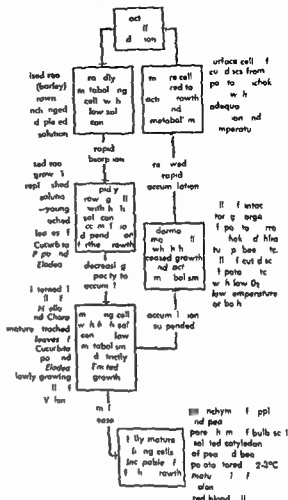


Fig 5 S h e m a t i t n h p a m g p t t y  
t y p s f p l t t u d l l w i t h g d t t h e  
b i l t y m l a t g o l t s ( F m E T g  
e d M l M u t f P l t U f W  
P s s 1951)

t a d u n r n t o b s e r e d w i t h f a r b l e a p p l y  
t h m n f r e e m e n t b g s f f e c t t o a f f o d  
r t s a d e q t e f m a l m g o w t h a d d e v e l p m e n t  
H o w e e c m b i l t y n t h e m d u m i s o f  
t e n i n a d e q u a t t h u g h l u b i t r f a t o n s  
o r e t l o a p e t t n I n e t e m e c a s e s  
n b a l n e s t r n a l l y m a y l m t p r m a b i l t y  
f o h p t n d t h u s l e a d t o d f i c i e n y o f a n e l e  
m e t f r g w i t h

Redistribution of minerals A d t i l u t n f  
m i e a l a f f e c t e d t h r o u g h e t r s l t n t h a t  
w h n u b i n m e o u t f a t e r m l l a  
t u n o g i t s m t h p t o f t h p l n t  
T h s f m p l e m i n e a l m y m o f m l d e  
t y o u n g r l e a s f r m c l s t o o t h e r e l l s

R e t r o c l o n f m t m n l t d e p d o  
t h e b l t y t h l l s s i t d w t h c h t t  
r a t h s l t n e n t d t h m b l t y t h  
n a . T h e r i n t n d p e d t h m e t b l t t u  
f c u m l t t t h t w h e n c h b l t y d e  
c e a s e s w i t h m t u a g r e n t e l l m  
w h e n l t m e m t b y p m u l s p l m  
s l t c m o v t t h t e s R e t r l e c t n g



erally a diffusion from higher to lower concentrations (activities) except where modified by streaming movements and transpiration water utilization or metabolic accumulations at secondary terminal sites. With dilute soil solution low concentration of mineral nutrient reach terminal leaf site through flux in part in the transpiration stream much is absorbed by cells along the way. Excess over the thus accumulated or fixed in growth process move into pathway where they are retranslocated in a downward direction principally in the phloem along with products of photosynthesis. Here diffusion modified by streaming may occur where gradients are proper. Some experimental data support the hypothesis that mass flows occur through sieve tubes in the phloem activated automatically in a manner similar to exudation in xylem but not directly interconnected therewith. Thus there is a general circulation of mineral nutrient with intermediate cellular absorption or utilization. Progressive translocation and retranslocation of mineral nutrients cause a changing pattern of solute distribution in plants. See FERTILIZING HYDROIONIC PLANT MINERALS ESSENTIAL TO [TCB]

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## Plant minerals essential to

There are 16 chemical elements recognized as essential for the growth of higher plants. Soil minerals supply 13 elements (excluding carbon, hydrogen and oxygen which are obtained by plants from water or from atmospheric gases). Six of these elements are called macronutrients because they are required by plants in relatively large amounts. Nitrogen, potassium, calcium, magnesium, sulfur and phosphorus are needed in the order listed. The micronutrients required in small to minute quantities are chlorine, boron, manganese, iron, zinc, copper and molybdenum. With the exception of chlorine deficiencies of each of the others have been shown to prevail under certain agricultural conditions. Further research may disclose that other elements are also essential for higher plants. Experimental evidence indicates that sodium is essential for growth of the green alga *Scenedesmus obliquus*, cobalt for blue green algae and sodium for blue green algae and the seed plant orchard (*Atriplex vesicaria*).

The presence of elements in plants however is not proof of their essentiality. It has been proposed that an element not be considered essential unless (1) a deficiency of it makes it impossible for the

## Approximate critical concentration levels of essential mineral elements in higher land plants

Element	Dry weight %
<b>Macronutrients</b>	
Nitrogen, N (total)	1.000
Phosphorus (total), P (N < 15,000 ppm)	0.050
Iron, Mn (total), K (N > 1,000 ppm)	10.000
Nitrogen, N (NO <sub>3</sub> -N)	1.000
Calcium, Ca	1.000-3.000
Magnesium, Mg	1.000-3.000
Phosphorus (total), P (total)	1.100
Sulfur, S (total)	0.050
Iron, Mn (total), Potassium, PO <sub>4</sub> -P	1.000
Sulfur, S (total)	0.050
Sulfur, S (total)	0.050
Sulfur, S (total)	0.050
<b>Micronutrients</b>	
Chlorine, Cl	100
Boron, B	10
Zinc, Zn	10-1
Iron, Fe	10
Magnesium, Mg	10-30
Copper, Cu	3-10
Molybdenum, Mo	0-0.1

plant to complete its life cycle. (2) such deficiency is specific to the element in question, and can be prevented or corrected only by applying this element, and (3) the element is directly involved in the nutrition of the plant apart from its possible effects in correcting some unfavorable microbiological or chemical condition in the soil or other culture medium.

**Diagnosis** Measurement of the concentration of particular elements in plants or in available form in soils can be used to diagnose the adequacy of supply. Diagnostic techniques with soil minerals indicate the amounts available for plant. Plant analysis and correlated growth indicate what mineral status the plants have been able to acquire from a soil and the development attained with the minerals. Approximate critical concentrations have been determined for plant tissue below which a reduction in growth might be expected.

**Utilization of minerals in plants** Utilization of minerals in contrast with absorption refers to the incorporation of mineral elements into the constituent of cell wall and protoplasm or to their direct participation in metabolic reactions. Mineral salts may be absorbed and not utilized. Some may remain indefinitely in the ionic state in cells, many are incorporated into more complex but unsolubilized molecules. Minerals utilized in one organ may be subsequently released, translocated to other plant parts and utilized.

The elements are several general functions of mineral nutrients in plants. Some may become permanent constituents of molecules which are integral part of protoplasm or cell walls. Examples are sulfur and nitrogen in proteins, phosphorus in nucleoproteins and lecithin, magnesium in chlorophyll and aluminum in aluminum pectate. Some mineral elements are constituents of catalytic system. Of these some may be constituents of certain enzymes whereas others may act as activator or in

er f n o m r enzym ystem l on op  
nd z ear k own to be e t t n e t f e e  
nzymes M gne m and mangan u act as  
t s habit rs n nzyme syst m  
l ut i nt may l aff t t h p rme bl  
if p t pl mic m mbra The perme b lity  
r t pl m is nflu n d by both n a d at  
M n le t at ons ge ally r a pe  
b lity f p t pl m D ale t d p ly l e t  
s u ally ed e perme b lity f p to  
m th p r m ry ffect s ally s f l owed in  
by a c ndary n a g e f f c t o p rmeabl  
e pec ally wh m oval t a o s n pres  
A i gne lly i re perme b lity i  
s l e t at n l f t e val y f t h e an n e  
f t h t f t h e at n n r e perm bl  
es l f t h e a s t r u t h n t al f e t  
d re n permeab lity f l l wed by a u ond  
e N t ly s t h perme b lity of p o t o  
m t m r al l f f e d by o b t p  
u o f t h e phy l g al m cha m f a c m  
n s l f f e d by sp f i o s n t a c t  
h t h e l l All of t h e m c n t r e t s m  
d t h e m e t b l cally p d c e d s e o  
n d s t h e s e f f t L t t l e k w n exp m e  
ly n t h g d b t h m u t n t o n  
e l l t may i f f e n e t h e m t p e  
p l n t e l l s t h r m t y s t m The p  
m t p l n t c e l l i l w n c e n t a t i n f m

eral alts and nly m l l prop r t i on of t h e os  
motic p e s u e f c e l l s a p c a n b e a r i b e l l t c h  
c m j o u d b e c a u e s u g a n d o t h r l u t e a r  
p e t. H o w e v e r t h e r e a e n o t a b l e e x e p t i n s  
u c h s a l i f m s p e c i e i n w h i c h t h e a c c u m u  
l t i n f o d u m a d c h l r d e i o n s e r y h i g h  
V i n e a l n u t i e t n s u c h s p h p h a t e m a y p l a y  
a l e n c i d t y n b u f f r a c t n n i n p l a n t M e t a  
b l l a l t g e a t e d h y d r o g e n i o n a n d o a c a  
i o s a r e a l s o t e g r a l m p y e n t s o f p l a n t l u f f e r  
s y s t e m C a t n e m p o n n t o f p l a n t b l l y s t m  
r e m o i t l y p o t u m c a l i u m a n d m a g n s m

M e a l l e m n t m y e x t u t a g o n i t i c o r  
m p e t i t e e f f t O e n r s l t m a y f l e t  
e n u t h a l f l e t o f n o t h e r n a l l  
A r e a n a l l p h y s l o g a l b a l a n c e a y i n  
t h e m e d u m a n d i n t h e p l a n t A b n o m a l r a t i o  
m a y l e a d t o d e r a n g e d p e r m a b l i t y a d m e t a b o l i c  
p r o e a t e s C a l c m p l a y p m i n t r l e m  
e t b l h g f v r a b l p r t p l m r g z a t i o n  
S o m e e l e m n t a l t h o g h e s e t a l i l i m i t e d  
m u t i m y p o t u m a t h i g h e l e v e l T h e c  
l u d e o t o l y e l m e n t e c g z e d t o b e n e x  
r y f r g r o w t h b u t a l o m n y n t c n d e r e d  
T h m o s x e l e m e n t i n l u d e a l m n m b r o n  
p p e r a s g n m m o l y b d e m a d c  
I d d t i n c t a i n p t i c r o l e s o f m e r a l n u  
t e n t m a y b e t e d N t r o g a c o m p n n t o f  
n d s a n d p r t i w h i c h c n t i t u t e t h e b



Symp m f m l i m s d f h w n m p m (7) b o (8) f e (9) m g  
by tob pl t h d f t l m t (11) t o m (10) A l l t h t m t w p p l d t (6)  
g (2) p h p h (3) p t m (4) t m (5) (USDA)

substance of protoplasm Sulfur is also a constituent of amino acid and proteins and of thiamin and biotin which are essential hormones in plant Phosphorus as phosphate enter into the composition of phospholipids and of nucleic acids the latter of which combine with proteins forming nucleoprotein Phosphorus also plays a key role in the transfer of energy through phosphate bonds in metabolic processes Specific roles of potassium remain obscure however it appears that potassium is involved in some way in the synthesis of proteins from amino acids and in carbohydrate metabolism Calcium is a constituent of the pectic compounds of the middle lamellae of cell walls it appears to be involved in nitrogen metabolism and it plays a unique role in maintenance of protoplasmic stability or favorable organization in permeability relations and metabolism Magnesium is a constituent of the chlorophyll molecules essential to photosynthesis it plays a role in phosphate metabolism or the respiratory mechanism and magnesium ions appear to be specific activators of certain plant enzyme Iron is essential to the synthesis of chlorophyll it is also a constituent of some enzymes and carriers which operate in the respiratory mechanism Boron appears to play a role in protein synthesis and possibly in sugar transport however its exact role is unknown Manganese is involved in oxidation reduction phenomena with iron it is also an activator of some enzyme systems Zinc is a constituent of the enzyme carbonic anhydrase however its role in metabolism of plants is obscure It appears to be necessary for the synthesis of the growth hormone indoleacetic acid Copper is a constituent of certain oxidation reduction enzymes Molybdenum plays a part in the reduction of nitrate The role of chlorine is unknown though it may be necessary to photosynthetic activity

**Mineral deficiency symptoms in plants** Inadequate amounts or unavailability of any of the essential mineral nutrients in the soil or other medium in which roots of plants are cultured may lead to decreased growth and visible deficiency symptoms Such changes in appearance may also occur when the element is present in the tissue if for some reason it is unavailable within the plant or cannot be utilized in metabolism Thus iron may become immobilized under certain conditions and iron deficiency may become apparent even in plants containing considerable iron Symptom of the deficiency of a certain element are similar in different species though the manifestations may vary in some aspects from species to species Deficiency symptoms may be grouped into key and arranged according to general characteristics such as the age of the organ or tissue affected as chloroses or other color aberrations or as necrosis Occasionally under natural conditions modified symptoms may develop when more than a single deficiency is involved See FERTILIZER FERTILIZING HYDROPONICS PLANT WATER RELATIONS [TCB]

**Bibliography** See PLANT MINERAL NUTRITION

## Plant water relations of

Water is the most abundant constituent of all physiologically active plant cells Leaves for example have water contents which lie mostly within a range of 55-85% of their fresh weight Other related succulent parts of plants contain approximately the same proportion of water and even such largely nonliving tissues as wood may be 30-60% water on a fresh weight basis The smallest water contents in living parts of plants occur mostly in dormant structures such as mature seed and spores The great bulk of the water in any plant constitutes a unit system This water is not in a static condition Rather it is part of a hydrodynamic system which in terrestrial plants involves absorption of water from the soil its translocation throughout the plant and its loss to the environment principally in the process known as transpiration

**Cellular water relations** The typical mature vacuolate plant cell constitutes a tiny osmotic system and this idea is central to any concept of cellular water dynamics Although the cell walls of most living plant cells are quite freely permeable to water and solute the cytoplasmic layer that lines the cell wall is more permeable to some substances than to others This property of differential permeability appears to reside principally in the layer of cytoplasm adjacent to the cell wall (plasma membrane or plasmalemma) and in the layer in contact with the vacuole (vacuolar membrane or tonoplast) This cytoplasmic system of membranes is usually relatively permeable to water to dissolved gases and to certain dissolved organic compounds It is often much less permeable to sugars and mineral salts The permeability of the cytoplasmic membrane is quite variable however and under certain metabolic conditions solutes that ordinarily penetrate through these membranes slowly or not at all may pass into or out of cells rapidly See CELL (BIOLOGICAL)

**Osmotic pressure and turgor pressure** If a plant cell is in a flaccid condition—one in which the cell sap exerts no pressure against the encompassing cytoplasm and cell wall—is immersed in pure water inward osmosis of water into the cell appears to occur Osmosis may be defined as the diffusion of solvent molecules usually water across a membrane that is more permeable to the solvent than to solutes dissolved in it The driving force in osmosis as in other diffusion phenomena is the difference in pressure (DP) of the diffusing molecules in the case of the water molecules In and out of water takes place under the conditions because the diffusion pressure of the water in the cell sap is less than that of the surrounding pure water by the amount of its osmotic pressure (OP) If the osmotic pressure of the water in the cell sap is 15 atmospheres (atm) the diffusion pressure of the water in the cell sap is 15 atm less than that of pure water at the same temperature and under the same pressure The latter diffusion of the water in the cell sap results

heg in n wat r by the ell r lts nth exe ti n  
 i tu g p ess r (TP) ag i st the p ot o pla n  
 fi h n tu i tr nsm t t d t the c ll wall Thus  
 ex lo pr l th ough at the a s of olu  
 wi n the c ll If the c ll wall e la tic ome  
 pa s o n the l me f th e ll o cu s alth gh  
 m ny k ds f c lls th i e la tic ely mall  
 Becau e f th lut in a bly pr s nt th  
 ll app e es m moti pr sure The o mot  
 s ure of m t pl t cell ap s l with n a 5 to  
 20 atm g f m g n t des alth ough lue a  
 has 200 at h be n f nd m me h al phytes  
 pl nty th t an tes ste gh late m d a) Th  
 i mot c pr es f the ll f g v n pla t t sue  
 ary conside ably ith en r m ntal ond ti  
 and nt m m tab li cti tes Mo eo les reg  
 la daly ease l e i t u cu in th m g  
 lode of c ll ap m m tic press res n th cell of  
 m n y ts m f t the m m t e p e f th ell  
 u p l ed with th d ff r ntial p r me b l ty of  
 the y t pla m e m bra es and th el v e m els  
 t e n ty of th ell w lls wh h p m s the d e p  
 m t of th m r se tu g d cond i on ch s a  
 ter t e o m o t p l t ell

W i t h e t e d m a f w a r n t o the ell i t  
 i g p e m d u s l y n e a e u n t i t e q u a l  
 to th f i o m o t i p e u of the cell sap Subjec  
 t n of the w i r the c ll ap to p s e i  
 cr a t s d f u n p u r l y th a m o n f the  
 m p o d e p u r e In the a m p l e g n a b o e d s  
 r e d g the u a l l y m a l l m o u t i s a p d i m o n  
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 of the i n th c ll sap d d 15 t m b e  
 f t h p of a o l e t h e o r o t i c p r  
 u e s the d x f i l s l w e n g of d i f f p r  
 u e l d a e d 15 a t m a a r e u l t of i r g n  
 p r i e h e n m a m u n t g o s a h e d H e  
 h d y n m e q l b m s a t t e d t h d f f  
 p u f t h w t the c ll a p s q i t t h a t  
 f t h u d n g w a t e e n d t i n w h c h m t  
 a e s a r l y b i a n i n q l i b r u m i t l i  
 a h e d

I f t h m l l a f f d d t n a m m e d  
 o u t n t h n o m t i p r u f b i m n  
 w d m o c r b t d t a t a  
 l g a w h e t h l i m m e i i w a t  
 D g d n g p d t i a d m e e q l b m  
 l l b e m e d n d t h e s e m e n t i n w h n  
 t h t u g p r f t h e l l a p h r h e d 9  
 a t m b i t h p n t h d f f i n p r u e of  
 t h w a t t h l l a p a d n t h u d g  
 a o l i l l b q l s t h d f f i n p r u  
 f t h e i r i l l p w g a l l y d m n  
 h d 15 t m b e c s e f t h p e f a l l y a d  
 t h n r d 9 t m b a e f t u g p u e t h  
 t d i d p u u e f i b  
 t m w t h t h m t h e d t o f d f f o  
 p i n t h e s r n d n g i t A t d y n a m  
 q l b m t h e n m b e of t m l l i n g  
 t h l l a d t h m b e i k t p e u n t i t m e  
 w i l l b e q l

D f f p d f i s A t h m p l e g a n  
 d i t h f l e c t p h l q u n t i t y t l l g  
 d i t e c t o l l o n t m m e t f w t f m

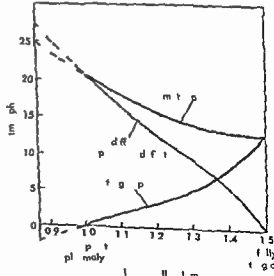
c ll to c ll a plant bet een cell and an ex  
 te n l o l u t i n the d f l u a p e r e d f i c t  
 (DPD) f the w a t e r Th s q u n t i s e q u a l to the  
 o m t c p e s s e of the w t r l e the t r g m p r e s  
 u r t w h i h m i s u b j e c t U d e c e t a i n c i r c u m  
 s t a n c e s t h t u r g o r p r e u r e m a y b e n e g a t e i n  
 a l e t h a t the w a t e r m a y b d e r t e n o n Ex  
 a m p l e s of t h e c c u r r e n c e of w a t e r u n d e r t e n i o n i n  
 p l a t w i l l e d c i e d l i t e r i n t h a r t i c l e W h e n  
 w a t e r u n d e r t e n s n t d i f f u i n p e u r e d e f i c t  
 i s e q u a l to t o m t i c p e s s u r e p l u s t h e t e n i o n t o  
 w h c h i t i s u b j e c t e d I n a n u n c o n f i n d s l t o n t h e  
 d f l u s m p r e s u e d e f i t i s e q u a l t o i t s m o t i  
 p e u e s i c e t h e r e s n o t u r g o r p r e r e I n a  
 f l l y t u g d p l a n t m l l t h e d f l u n p r e r d e f i c t  
 i s z e o a n d t h e t u g r p e s u e s e q u a l to t h e o s  
 m o t c p e s u r e n a f a l l y f l a c c i d e l l t h e t u g r  
 p r e s u e s o a n d t h d f l u s o n p r e u r e i s e q u a l  
 t t h e m o t p r e u r e

The i n t r r e l a t i o n h p a m n g t h p r i c p a l o s  
 m t e q u a t i e s f a p l a n t c e l l c a n b e e x p r e s s e d  
 n the s i m p l e e q u a t i o n

$$DPD = OP - TP$$

The e r l a t o h p a c e l l i l l u s t r a t e d d i a g r a m  
 m a t i c a l l y i n F g 1 w h h a l l o w n e t s a l o  
 b e e n m a d f o r t h e e f f e t f v o l u m c h a g e w h i c h  
 r e h a c t s t i c f o m e k i n d s of e l l w i t h h i f t s  
 a t u g o p a s r e T h e c o n d i t i o n s w h c h w o l d p r e a  
 l n t h e e l l f t h e c e l l a p p e i n t o a t a t e of  
 z n (n e g a t i p e u e s) a r e i n d c a t d b y t h e  
 d t i e d e x t e n o n of t h e c r i v e t o t h l e f t

C e l l t r e l l m e m b r e f w a t i n p l a t s a l w a s  
 o c f m t h e c l l o f l e t o t h e e l l f g r e a t  
 d f l u i n p e s r e d e f i t i s S u c h m o m e n t of w a t e r  
 t a p a t t e s u a p p a r e n t l y o f t n u n v e r c o n  
 d e a b l e d t e c e s l n g d f f n p s u e d e f i t  
 g r a d n t w h f t h d f l u n p e s r e d f i t f



F g 1 i s i s h p m g m o t c p s s u  
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 m f a p l t l l f m K H P E m t B t  
 38 288-298 1920)

each cell in a *erie* is greater than that of the preceding one

**Plasmolysis** If a turgid or partially turgid plant cell is immersed in a solution with a greater osmotic pressure than the cell sap a gradual shrinkage in the volume of the cell ensues the shrinkage may be small or large depending upon the kind of cell and its initial degree of turgidity. When the lower limit of cell wall elasticity is reached the protoplasmic layer begins to recede from the inner surface of the cell wall as a result of the continued loss of water from the cell sap. Retreat of the protoplasm from the cell often continues until it has shrunk towards the center of the cell the space between the protoplasm and the cell wall becoming occupied by the bathing solution. This phenomenon is called plasmolysis. If a cell is immersed in a solution with an osmotic pressure which just slightly exceeds that of the cell sap withdrawal of the protoplasm from the cell wall should be just barely initiated. The stage of plasmolysis is shown in Fig. 1 it is called incipient plasmolysis and it is the basis for one of the commonly used methods of measuring the osmotic pressure of plant cell.

**Imbibition** In some kinds of plant cell movement of water occurs principally by the process of imbibition rather than osmosis. The swelling of dry seeds when immersed in water is a familiar example of this process. Imbibition like osmosis is basically a diffusion process and occurs because of the greater diffusion pressure deficit of the water in the imbibant as compared with the diffusion pressure deficit of the water in the contiguous part of the system. An equilibrium is reached only when the diffusion pressure deficit of the water in the two parts of the system has attained the same value. The diffusion pressure deficit of the water in a dry seed is extremely high being equal in value to its so-called imbibition pressure of pure water, zero; hence movement of water into the seed occurs. Even if the seeds are immersed in a solution of considerable osmotic pressure which in an unconfined solution is an index of its diffusion pressure deficit imbibition occurs. However if the osmotic pressure of the solution is high enough (of the order of 1000 atm) the seed will not gain water from the solution and may even lose a little to the solution. In other words if the diffusion pressure deficit of the solution is high enough imbibition does not occur.

However a difference in diffusion pressure deficits between the liquid in an imbibant and in the surrounding or adjacent medium is not the only condition which must be fulfilled if imbibition is to occur. Seeds swell readily when immersed in water but not when immersed in either alcohol or organic liquid. Contrariwise rubber does not imbibewater but does imbibe measurable quantities of ether and other organic liquids. Certain specific attractive forces between the molecules of the imbibant and the imbibed liquid are therefore also a requisite for the occurrence of imbibition.

In an imbibitional system the imbibition pressure (IP) of the imbibant is the analogue of the

osmotic pressure in an osmotic system hence in such a system

$$DPD = IP - TP$$

The imbibition pressure may be regarded as the index of the reduction in diffusion pressure in an imbibant insofar as this results from attraction between the molecules of the imbibant and water molecules. For an unconfined imbibant which is immersed in water the diffusion pressure deficit is initially equal to the imbibition pressure since there is no turgor pressure factor. The more nearly saturated such an imbibant becomes the smaller is imbibition pressure and hence also its diffusion pressure deficit. A fully saturated imbibant has zero imbibition pressure and a zero diffusion pressure deficit.

**The stomatal mechanism** Various gases diffuse into and out of physiologically active plants. The gas of greatest physiological significance is carbon dioxide which diffuses into the plant during photosynthesis and is lost from the plant in respiration. Oxygen which diffuses in during respiration and is lost during photosynthesis and water vapor which is lost in the process of transpiration. The great bulk of the gaseous exchange between the plant and its environment occurs through stomata in the epidermis called stomates (see EPIDERMIS PLANT). Although stomates occur on many parts of plants they are most characteristic of leaves and occur in greatest abundance in leaves. See L. (BOTANY).

Each stomate or stoma (plural stomates or mata) consists of a minute elliptical pore surrounded by two distinct elongated epidermal cells called guard cells. Stomates are sometimes open and sometimes closed when closed all gaseous exchange between a plant and its environment is greatly retarded. The size of a fully open stoma differs greatly from one species of plant to another. Among the largest known are those of the wattle tree, *Acacia saligna* (Zabrana p. dula) whose axial diameter is 31 by 12 microns ( $\mu$ ). In most species stomates are much smaller but all of them are important portals of exchange which are enormous relative to the size of the gas molecules that diffuse through them. The number of stomates per square centimeter of leaf surface ranges from a few thousand in some species to over a hundred thousand in others. In many species of plants stomates are present both in the upper and lower epidermis usually being more abundant in the lower. In many species especially of woody plants stomates are present only in the lower epidermis. In flowering plants stomates occur only in the upper epidermis.

Rates of transpiration (loss of water) are from a few per cent of the expanded type often are 10 or even more per cent of the type of ratio from a water surface of equal area under the same environmental conditions. Loss of water vapor from leaves may occur through either the high rate of diffusion that the average gate is fully open in most species only 1-3%.

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p o r e i t t o t h e p g t h r u g h s e t e  
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le th a e i p t h e f r t h g e t u  
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r p r e d w h n u m b r f i s m l l f w h a e g  
g g t a r e p r i s l y m l l p o t n g  
t h p t m e a t h g h p n r f a e e q u l  
i a e t t h p t m T h h g h d f f p t y  
f i t h t m a t n b e o n t e d i t e m f  
t h e p n p l e S e d f f u n f g e r t h u g h  
f i m t e p r p r t l t t h y e m e t f the  
p o t h t h n t o i s a r a t h d f f s n t  
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p r i p a l l y a m t a l t h g h t h e f t o  
a e p r b h i g m o f e d U p o t h a d n t f l u m  
t h e h y d o g m e t a t o f i t h g d  
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t m e p h p h r y l h h i t h e f e o l p h  
p h t e s t f m t i n o f s o l b l e t h  
n t t h l u b i o m p n d g l s e l p h p h t e  
T h r e s u l t g n t a e l u t c n t u n o f  
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f m l g u a p d m l e l l n w h h t h r  
l u l d a y l a t n m s m t p e r m t h  
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W t h t h d t f d k a f a r l i e l y w  
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p t h y i p e t l e d n g l t m a l l t

Light of low intensity m gen rally m ak ng les  
e f f t t h a t r o g l l m n a t i n i d u c n g  
t m t l o p a n g l l e n c e t o m a t e o f t e n d o t  
o p n a s w d o n c l o u d y a s o n c l a r d a y a n d o f t e n  
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i n t e n s t t w h c h t h e p l n t s e x p o r d O p e n m o f  
t h s t m a t s d n o t o c c u r i n m t p c e a t t e m  
p e r a t u r e s a p p o h g f e e z i n g l l e n c e i n c o l d o r  
e v e n e o l w e a t h e t m a t e s o f t e m a i n l o e d  
e e n w h n t h e e n o m m e t l e n d i t o a r f a  
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a t t i m e i n m e p s b u t t h e o d t o s w h i h  
n d u c t h s p a t t e f t m a t a l r e a c t n a e n o t  
c l e a r l y u n d e r t o d

### THE PROCESS OF TRANSPIRATION

T h t e r m t r a n s p i r a t i o n d e s i g n a t t h e  
p o e s s w h y w a t e r a p o r l o t f r m p l a t  
A l t h o u h l a s l l y a n e x a p r a t i o n p r c e t r a n  
p a t i u i c m p l e a t d b y t h r p h y c l and  
p h y i l g e a l c n d i t i o n s p e v a l i n g i n t h e p l n t  
W h e r a s l o s s o f w a t e r a p o c a o c u r f r m a n y  
p a r t o f t h p l a n t w h c h i e x p e d t t h a t m o  
p h e r e t h g t b l k f a l l t r a n p a t n o c u  
f m t h e l m T h e t w k n d o f f l a t a n  
p r a t n (1) i m t a l t r a n p r a t n n w h i c h w a  
s e a p l o s o r t h u g h t h e t m a t e a n d  
(2) c t l a t a s p i r a t i o n w h c h c u d i r e c t l y  
f m t h e o t d u f e f f d m a l w a l l s t h u g h  
t h c t i I m o t s p e c i e 90 c r m e o f a l l  
f l e t m t n f t h e i m t a l t y p

D y n a m i c s o f s t o m a t a l t r a n s p i r a t i o n T h d y  
a m i c s o f t m t i t a p t n a c n s i d e a b l y  
m e m p l e t h a n t h t f u t l r t r n p i r a t n  
i n t h l a e f m s t k i n d o f p l n t t h e m o p h y l l  
c l l d o n t f i t i g t h t i g h t l y n d t h m e r c l l r  
p s b e t w e e n t h e m c u p e d b y a r A v i  
b l a b y t h f a f i l l d s p c t h p r e n t  
w t h n a l e s b n d d b y t h e w a t e r t r d w l l  
f t h m o p h y l l l l s W t v p t r a d l y  
f m t h e s e w t c e l l w a l l s i t t h n t e l l  
s p a c l i t e t m t e r e l d t h e n l y e f f t f  
a c h a p a t o s t a t u t t h e t i e l l u r  
s p c w i t h w t p I f t h t m a t e m p e  
h w e v e d f f o n f w t p u u l l y o c  
t h o u g h t h e m t t h e n d m m o p h e  
S h d f f s a l w y o c c u l s t h m p h  
h a a p p e s q l t s g t t h n  
t h t w t h t h e m t e l l s p e c e s u t n  
w h h e l d m p e a l d n g t h d y l g h t h o u o f  
l a d a y T h t w o p h y i a l p e s f a p a  
t o n a d d f f f w a t e p o e b t h n g a l  
t p m t m a l l a p t n P h y l g l  
t l o f t h r p o e t f t a p a t o s e x e t e d  
t h u g h t h p o g a d e l i n g f t h s t o m a t  
p e u l y d r b d

E f f e c t s o f e n v i r o n m e n t o n t r a n s p i r a t i o n L h t  
a f t h m s f a z m c o n t h t f  
t a p i a t b a e o f t c n t i l l e f f e c t

the opening and closing of stomates. Since stomatal transpiration is largely restricted to the daylight hours, daytime rates of transpiration are usually many times greater than night rates, which largely or entirely represent cuticular transpiration. Since leaves in direct sunlight usually have temperatures from one to several degrees higher than that of the surrounding atmosphere, light also has a secondary accelerating effect on transpiration through its influence on leaf temperatures. Increase in leaf temperature results in an increase in the diffusion pressure of the water vapor molecules within the leaf.

The rate of diffusion of water vapor through open stomates depends upon the steepness of the vapor pressure gradient between the intercellular spaces and the outside atmosphere. When the vapor pressure in that part of the intercellular spaces just below the stomatal pores is high relative to that of the atmosphere, diffusion of water vapor out of the leaf occurs rapidly; when it is low, water vapor diffusion occurs much more slowly.

Temperature has a marked effect upon rates of transpiration principally because of its differential effect upon the vapor pressure of the intercellular spaces and atmosphere. Although leaf temperatures do not exactly parallel atmospheric temperatures, increase in atmospheric temperature in general results in a rise in leaf temperature and vice versa. On a warm clear day, such a would be typified by many summer days in temperate latitudes and with an adequate soil water supply, increase in temperature results in an increase in the vapor pressure of the intercellular space. Such a rise in vapor pressure occurs because the vapor pressure corresponding to a saturated condition of an atmosphere increases with rise in temperature and the extensive evaporating surfaces of the cell walls bounding the intercellular spaces make it possible for the intercellular spaces to be maintained in an approximately saturated condition most of the time. An increase in temperature ordinarily has little or no effect on the vapor pressure of the atmosphere and this is especially true of warm bright days on which transpiration rates are the highest. Hence as the temperature rises, the vapor pressure of the intercellular spaces increases relative to that of the external atmosphere, the vapor pressure gradient through the stomates is steepened and the rate of outward diffusion of water vapor increases.

Wind velocity is another factor which influences the rate of transpiration. Generally speaking, a gentle breeze is relatively much more effective in increasing transpiration rates than are wind of greater velocity. In quiet air, a localized zone of relatively high atmospheric vapor pressure may build up in the vicinity of transpiring leaves. Such zones retard transpiration unless there is sufficient movement to prevent the accumulation of water vapor molecules. The bending, twisting and fluttering of leaf blades and the swaying of twigs and branches in a wind also contribute to increasing the rate of transpiration.

Soil water conditions exert a major influence on the rate of transpiration. Whenever soil conditions

are such that the rate of absorption of water is retarded, there is a corresponding diminution in the rate of transpiration.

**Daily periodicity of transpiration.** The rate of every major plant process, including transpiration, is measurably and often markedly influenced by the environmental conditions to which the plant is exposed. Many of the environmental factors exhibit more or less regular daily periodicities, which vary somewhat of course with the prevailing climatic conditions. This is especially true of the factors of light and temperature. Many plant processes, including transpiration, therefore exhibit daily periodicities in rate that are correlated with the daily periodicities of one or more environmental factors.

The daily periodicity of transpiration in alfalfa, as exhibited on a clear warm day with adequate soil water available, is illustrated in Fig. 2. A similar daily periodicity of transpiration is exhibited under comparable environmental conditions by many other species. During the hours of darkness, the transpiration rate is relatively low and in most species, water vapor loss during this period may be regarded as entirely cuticular or nearly so. The transpiration rate shows a steady rise during the morning hours culminating in a peak rate which is attained in the early hours of the afternoon. The increase in transpiration rate during the forepart of the day results from gradual opening of the stomates beginning with the advent of light, followed by a steady increase in the steepness of the vapor pressure gradient through the stomates, which occurs as a result of increasing atmospheric temperature during the morning and earlier afternoon hours.

In most plants, if transpiration is occurring rapidly, the rate of absorption of water does not keep pace with the rate at which water vapor is lost from the leaves. In other words, the plant gradually becomes depleted of water during the daylight hours. In time, the resulting decrease in the water content of the leaf cells results in a reduced vapor pressure within the intercellular space and a diminution in the rate of transpiration begins. Stomates also start to close as a result of the diminished leaf water content and their closure is accelerated during the latter part of the afternoon by the waning light intensity. By nightfall, complete closure of virtually all stomates has taken place and water vapor loss during the hours of darkness again is restricted.

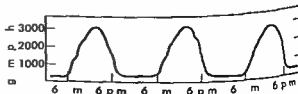


Fig. 2. Daily periodicity of transpiration of alfalfa on a clear warm day with adequate soil water. Rate of transpiration plotted as grams per hour per 6 ft<sup>2</sup> of leaf area (F. M. D. Thomas and G. H. P., 1937).

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n h u r c r r l t i g m r e c l o ly with the da ly  
mperatu s pe i d i ty than with th d i ly per o  
t v l i g h t n t y

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Magnitude of transpiration Transpiration of  
 broad leaved plants grown under the same  
 conditions of temperature and light intensity  
 was measured in the following table. The  
 plants were grown in pots of equal size and  
 the soil was the same in all cases. The  
 temperature of the air was 20°C and the  
 relative humidity was 60%.

Plant	Transpiration (g/m <sup>2</sup> /hr)
Broad leaved plant	1.5
Needle leaved plant	0.5
Conifer	0.2
Deciduous	1.2
Evergreen	0.8
Shrub	1.0
Tree	1.8
Grass	0.6
Corn	1.4
Wheat	1.1
Rice	1.6
Soybean	1.3
Pea	0.9
Bean	1.0
Barley	0.7
Oats	0.8
Rye	0.9
Maize	1.5
Sorghum	1.2
Millet	1.0
Buckwheat	0.8
Flax	0.7
Linen	0.6
Cotton	1.1
Woolly	0.9
Fluffy	0.8
Downy	0.7
Woolly	0.6
Fluffy	0.5
Downy	0.4
Woolly	0.3
Fluffy	0.2
Downy	0.1

Significance of transpiration lawpo t re-  
g dng th gn f n f r p t n h e  
a ped b twee th tw xt em l d ng i  
p oee th s ll) sun d bl cv l r (?) =  
phy l g l ec ty we th f th ext eme  
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pe t Lik w while som f th s ident l  
f tra entous app to be det mental to

the plant non of item is such a critical fact  
in that survival of plants considered in the aggregate  
is dangerous

Transpiration is a necessary consequence of the relation of water to the anatomy of the plant and especially to the anatomy of the leaf. In terrestrial green plants are dependent upon atmospheric carbon dioxide for their usual terrestrial life. The principal resistance to the diffusion of water vapor is the moist mesophyll cell wall which builds into the cellular spaces in the leaf. Diffusion through open stomata. When the stomata are open outward diffusion of water vapor undoubtedly occurs and the total transpiration account for most of the water applied to plants. Although transpiration is thus a direct physiological phenomenon it often has marked indirect effects on other physiological processes occurring in the plant because of its effect on the internal water relations of the plant.

## TRANSLOCATION OF WATER

In terrestrial root plants practically all the water which enters a plant is absorbed from the soil surface. The water thus absorbed is then led out to all parts of the plant in the tall tree (specimens of the coast redwood *Sequoia sempervirens*) the distance of the drip from the top of the trunk is nearly 400 ft. a distance which must be elevated if the distance is high enough. Although few plants are as tall as such, and although the mechanical movement of water from the leaves to the top of all aerial specimens of the mechanism of the ascent of sap is translated water outside the leaf to the soil, the plants are deeply rooted. The water is on the surface of the soil, and the rest of the plant is in the soil.

[illegible]



water occurs solely through spindle shaped xylem cells called tracheids. Vertically contiguous tracheids always overlap along their tapering portions resulting in a densely packed type of woody tissue. Individual tracheids may be as much as 5 mm in length. Like the vessel they are nonliving while functional in the translocation of water. Small more or less rounded thin areas occur in the walls of vessels and tracheids that are contiguous with the walls of other tracheids or vessels or cells. Structurally three main types of such pits are recognized but all of them appear to facilitate the passage of water from one xylem element to another.

**Root pressure** The exudation of xylem sap from the stump of a cut off herbaceous plant is a commonly observed phenomenon. Sap exudation (bleeding) from the cut ends of stems or from incisions into the wood also occurs in certain woody plants such as birch, currant and grape especially in the spring. A single vigorous grape vine often loses a liter or more of sap per day through the cut ends of stem after spring pruning. This exudation of sap from the xylem tissue results from a pressure originating in the roots called root pressure. A related phenomenon is that of guttation. This term refers to the exudation of drops of water from the tips or margins of leaves and occurs in many species of herbaceous plants as well as in some woody species. Like sap exudation from cut stems this phenomenon is observed most frequently in the spring and especially during early morning hours. The water exuded in guttation is not pure but contains traces of sugar and other solutes. Guttation occurs from special structures called hydathodes which are similar in structure to but larger than stomates. In most species water loss by guttation is negligible in comparison with the water loss as vapor in transpiration. Like xylem sap exudation guttation results from root pressure.

Root pressure is generally considered to be one of the mechanisms of upward transport of water in plants. While it is undoubtedly true that root pressure does account for some upward movement of water in certain species of plants at some seasons, various considerations indicate that it can be only a secondary mechanism of water transport. Among these are (1) there are many species in which the phenomenon of root pressure has not been observed (2) the magnitude of measured root pressures seldom exceeds 2 atm which could not activate a rise of water for more than about 60 ft and many trees are much taller than this (3) known rates of xylem sap flow under the influence of root pressure are usually inadequate to compensate for known rates of transpiration (4) root pressures are usually operative in woody plants only during the early spring during the summer months when transpiration rates and hence rates of xylem sap transport are greatest root pressures are negligible or nonexistent.

**Cohesion of water and ascent of sap** Although invariably in motion as a result of their kinetic energy water molecules are also strongly attracted to

each other. In masses of liquid water the existence of such intermolecular attractions is not obvious, but when water is confined in long tubes of small diameter the reality of the mutual attraction among water molecules can be demonstrated. If water at the top of such a tube be subjected to a pull the resulting stress will because of the mutual attraction (cohesion) among water molecules be transmitted all the way down the column of water. Furthermore because of the attraction between the water molecules and the wall of the tube (adhesion) subjecting the water column to a stress does not result in pulling it away from the wall.

The facts just recited have been made the basis of a widely entertained theory of the mechanism of water transport in plants first clearly enunciated by H. H. Dixon in 1914. According to this theory upward translocation of water is engendered by the development of diffusion pressure deficits in the cell of apical organs of plants. Such diffusion pressure deficits develop most commonly in the mesophyll cells of leaves hence this concept of the mechanism of water translocation is usually associated with the process of transpiration.

Evaporation of water from the walls of the mesophyll cell abutting on the intercellular spaces results in an increase in the diffusion pressure deficit of these cells. Consequent cell to cell movement of water causes an increase in the diffusion pressure deficit even of the mesophyll cell which are not directly exposed to the intercellular space. The resulting increase in diffusion pressure deficit of these cells directly in contact with the xylem element in the veinlets of the leaf induce movement of water from the vessels or tracheids into the adjacent cells. Since whenever transpiration is occurring at appreciable rates water does not enter the lower end of the xylem conduits in the root so rapidly as it passes out of the vessel or tracheid into adjacent cells at the upper end of the water conducting system the water in the xylem duct is stretched into taut threads that it passes into a state of tension. Each column of water behaves like a tiny stretched wire. The tension is transmitted along the entire length of the water column to their terminations just back of the root tips. Since the tension sustained by the water in the xylem ducts is in effect a diffusion pressure deficit (the osmotic factor in the diffusion pressure deficit of xylem sap is usually small relative to the tension factor) movement of water is induced from adjacent root cells into xylem elements in the absorbing region of roots.

The tension engendered in the water columns can be sustained by them because of the cohesion between the water molecules acting in conjunction with the adhesion of the boundary layer of water molecules to the wall of the xylem duct. The existence of water under tension in a plant has been verified in a number of species of plants by direct microscopic examination. There is some evidence that under conditions of marked internal water deficiency the tension is





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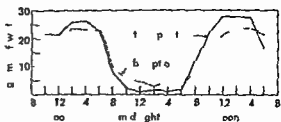


Fig 4 Comparison of the rate of transpiration and absorption of water by a plant during the day and night.

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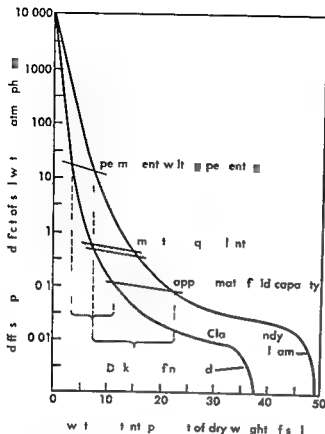


Fig 3. Relationship between water content of two soils over entire range of water content. The total available water (FOM - BR soil) is 54.19 mm.

stantly developing just back of the growing region of the root as it elongates. Most absorption of water occurs in the root tip regions and especially in the root hair zone. Older portions of most roots become covered with cutinized or suberized layers through which only very limited quantities of water can pass.

Whenever the diffusion pressure deficit of the water in the root hairs and other peripheral cells of a root tip exceeds that of the soil water movement of water takes place into the root cell. If the soil water content exceeds the field capacity, water may move by capillarity toward the region of absorption from portions of the soil not immediately contiguous with the root tips, and the supply of readily absorbable water is maintained in this way. Elongation of the roots, although slower in most species in relatively wet soils, also helps maintain contact between the root tips and untapped portions of the soil water. Many plants, much of the time, grow in soils with a water content in the range between the field capacity and the permanent wilting percentage. In this range of soil water contents, capillary movement of water through the soil is extremely slow or nonexistent, and an adequate supply of water cannot be maintained to rapidly absorbing root tips by this means. In such soil, maintenance of contact between the root tips and

available soil water is assured only by continued elongation of the roots through the soil. Mature root systems of many plants terminate in millions of root tips each of which may be visualized as slowly advancing through the oil-absorbing water from around or between the oil particle with which it comes in contact. The aggregate increase in the length of the root system of a rye plant averages 31 m/day. Calculations indicate that the daily root elongation of this plant is adequate to permit absorption of a sufficient quantity of water from oils at the field capacity to compensate for daily transpirational water loss.

**Mechanisms of absorption of water** A previously indicated the tension generated in the water columns of a plant most commonly as an indirect result of transpiration is transmitted to the ultimate terminations of the xylem duct in the root tip. As soon as the tension in the water column exceeds the diffusion pressure deficit of contiguous cells in the root tip, water moves from those cells into the xylem. This activates further cell to cell movement of water in a lateral direction across the root and presumably in the establishment of a gradient of diffusion pressure deficits increasing progressively in magnitude from the epidermal cells including the root hairs to the root xylem. Whenever the diffusion pressure deficit of the peripheral cells of the root exceeds that of the soil, water movement of water from the soil into the root cells occurs. There is some evidence that under conditions of marked internal water stress the tension generated in the xylem ducts will be propagated across the root to the peripheral cell. If this occurs, greater diffusion pressure deficit could develop in peripheral root cells than would otherwise be possible. This absorption mechanism would operate in fundamentally the same way whether or not the water in the root cells passes into a state of tension. The process just described often called passive absorption accounts for most of the absorption of water by terrestrial plants.

The phenomenon of root pressure previously described as the basis for xylem sap exudation from cuts or wounds and guttation represent another mechanism of the absorption of water. This mechanism is localized in the roots and is often called active aborption. Water absorption of this type only occurs when the rate of transpiration is low and the soil is relatively moist. Although xylem sap is relatively dilute its osmotic pressure is usually greater than the diffusion pressure deficit of the soil water when the soil is relatively moist. A gradient of diffusion pressure deficits can thus be established across the cortex and other tissues of the root along which the water moves laterally from the soil to the xylem. There is evidence however that a respiration mechanism as well as an osmotic mechanism may be involved in the correlated phenomena of active absorption, root pressure and guttation.

Effects of environment on absorption	Any factor which influence the rate	Any factor which influence the rate
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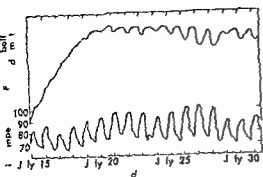


Fig. 1. Growth of a plant over time. The height of the plant (cm) is shown by the upper line, and the diameter of the stem (cm) is shown by the lower line. The x-axis represents time in days (d), and the y-axis represents height in centimeters (cm).

The growing cell in the node of the tomato stem is usually not in the same position as the cell in the node of the stem of the plant which is growing in the soil. The cell in the node of the stem of the plant which is growing in the soil is usually in the same position as the cell in the node of the stem of the plant which is growing in the soil. The cell in the node of the stem of the plant which is growing in the soil is usually in the same position as the cell in the node of the stem of the plant which is growing in the soil.

**Drought resistance.** The term drought resistance is usually applied to a plant which is able to survive in a dry environment. The term drought resistance is usually applied to a plant which is able to survive in a dry environment. The term drought resistance is usually applied to a plant which is able to survive in a dry environment. The term drought resistance is usually applied to a plant which is able to survive in a dry environment.

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cally dry habitats such as sand dunes and beaches in humid climates. Succulent are able to survive long dry periods because of the relatively large quantity of water which accumulates in the parenchyma cells and in other parts in the fleshy leaves during the occasional periods when a water available. Many succulents can live for months without stored water.

The plants which are drought resistant have the ability to store water in their cells and to tolerate a marked reduction in water intake during periods of time without injury. Many have a high specific surface area of the root system which has this property. Certain structural features undoubtedly aid in the survival of such plants for long periods in arid habitats. Many are epiphytes (plants that are dependent on other plants for support) and have a root system in proportion to their tops such as a tufted character; this aids in maintaining a supply of water to the aerial parts of the plant in a way that would otherwise be possible (see Ecology). Other drought resistant species are characterized by having a minimum of leaves, the transpiration of the plant may thus be small relative to the total area of the roots. In the case of the species the leaves are small (fall) with the addition of the dry season, a greatly reduced transpiration rate is maintained during the period of greatest internal resistance in the hydrodynamic system.

Drought resistance is a property which may help maintain the internal water supply of a plant. The term drought resistance is usually applied to a plant which is able to survive in a dry environment. The term drought resistance is usually applied to a plant which is able to survive in a dry environment. The term drought resistance is usually applied to a plant which is able to survive in a dry environment. The term drought resistance is usually applied to a plant which is able to survive in a dry environment.

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## Plant anatomy

The area of plant anatomy is concerned with the internal structure of plants. It deals both with the structure and with the organization of the plant.



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Other factors These regional hang a n e g e t a t i o n c o n b e f u n l w h e n n l y l m t c h a n g e t h e o t h e r f a c t o r s o f t h e e v o l u t i o n a r e f i e d a t o m e p a t u l a r a l u . I f t h e y a r f i e d a t a n o t h e r s e t f v a l i s t h e e q u e n w i l l b e j u t d f f e n t . A m d i f i a t i o f t h e e l f a c t o r i n t h e M i d d l e W e t e n e a e a h i f t i n t h e w e l l d r a i n d p l a n t s r i e B d p l a n s w l l m l t s e r v e f r e t c m m u n i t y f r o u t y p a l l a l o g t h i t h e m . I f t m p e a t u r e d a t c l l y l o w e d a s i t h e A r c t i c e v e 100 m m f e p a t i o n w l l r e u l t i n b o g e t a t n . T h e q u e o f p l t m m n i t y w h c h o p o n d t o a c h a n g n o n f e t t o f t h e e s y s t m s a f n t i n i f t h o s e o t h e r f a c t o r s f t h e s y s t m t e h h a b e n o n t t

Climax Stat ut t n r e d c r i b d a b v e . H o w e v e g e t a t i o n d y n a m i c t l a C i n a f i x d t i f t h e v o m e n t a l f a t o p e a t i n g o n a b e c t h u s e w l l c h a n g e t h e t y p o f p l a n t c o m m u n i t y i t s u p p o r t s t c o n t a n t l y d e r e n g r t e u n t i l a t e d y t a t e s a i r a n e d . T h e q u i b u m t g i b e a c l m x p l a n t c o m m u n i t y . A t s c h n e q u i l i b r m w h h m t o b e r c h d n f w h d r d y a d p n d n g o n t h e e o a y i m t h e e f f e c t s o f c l m t e m d e t e r m i n g t h k i n d o f e g t i s o f t e n b e c o m p r a m u n t . A l t h o u g h t h e e f f e f l u t e m a b m p a m o t n m y c y t m a t h r w t h t e m s o f o e o f t h e o t h e r f a c t o r s t h e e f f e c t o f t h s l t t r i f t r m y p e r t i d f i s t y . T h y v a e g u n d n d y a l p r t m t i l m a y c n t u p p o r t a p l a n t c o m m u n i t y t e d f f e n t f r o m t h t h e u r u n d n g h a r d l a n d a s t h e S a d H i l l f N e b r a k a w i t h t h e t a l l g r a s s g i t t o n s o u n d e d b y c l m a x m d a d h o t g a l a d d t t h h r t t e r m g e s s m n t o n d a b o e t h e e c h u g e f i l e n i n m e t a l f e t r t h m l e s w h h r t h h t o i c l e n g e i p l a n t c o m m u n i t y a l p l t c l w t o t h f l o a t h e c h s t r u t b l g h t t t h e h d w o d f



The plant anatomist dissects the plant and studies it from different planes and at various levels of magnification. At highest magnification he examines the smallest units of plant structure: the cell. At intermediate magnification he observes the organized aggregations of these cells: the tissues. And at low magnification he determines the arrangement and interrelations of tissues in plant organs such as root, stem, leaf, and flower. At the level of the cell, anatomy overlaps plant cytology, which deals exclusively with the cell and its contents. Sometimes the name plant histology is applied to the area of plant anatomy directed toward the study of cellular details of tissue. See PLANT ORGANS. PLANT TISSUE SYSTEMS. [K.F.]

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## Plant classification

The phase of plant taxonomy concerned with the systematic arrangement of plants according to their relationships. Plants may be classified in many ways—by similarity of parts, complexity of structure, means of reproduction, or by combinations of these and other characteristics. However, the botanists of almost every country except Great Britain use the Engler-Prantl system of plant classification or modifications of this fundamental system. This system set forth in *Die natürlichen Pflanzenfamilien* by the German botanists A. Engler and K. Prantl is dominant in a majority of the large herbaria and published floras. Based primarily on natural relations, the Engler-Prantl system employs the following categories:

The basic unit of taxonomic work is the species, which is a grouping of individuals having essentially the same structure and life history. When a number of different species are found to have certain fundamental characteristics in common, they are grouped into a larger category called a genus. In the same manner, on the basis of inherent similar characteristics, related genera are grouped into families, families into orders, and orders into classes. The classes of the plant kingdom are frequently arranged into twelves different phyla. Each phylum represents one of the largest divisions of the plant kingdom. Its members have fewer characteristics in common than are found in the families or any of the lesser categories. For ex-

ample, a vascular system (specialized food and water conducting tissue) is the one main characteristic of all the members of the phylum Tracheophyta. All the major classification groups may be broken down into smaller categories designated by such terms as subkingdom, subphylum, order, subfamily, tribe, and subgenus. Species may also be subdivided into such smaller categories as subspecies (sp.), variety (var.), subvariety (subvar.), form (f.), and clone (cl.). The name of an order usually ends in *-ales* (Rosales), a suborder in *-ineae* (Rosineae), a family usually in *-aceae* (Rosaceae), a subfamily in *-oideae* (Caryophyllaceae), and a tribe in *-ae* (Pomeae). The term taxon is used to designate any category whatever its rank: species, genus, family, or order. However, no one of the categories can be defined precisely. Each botanist fixes the limits according to his own view. See PLANT KINGDOM. [P.B.]

**Bibliography** See PLANT TAXONOMY.

## Plant community

A plant community is an association of plants. Plants of various species are found growing together as vegetation, and certain combinations of species are found repeated in homogeneous areas of similar ecology or biotopes, so often that generalizations can be made concerning these combinations. A plant community then has a certain species composition. A list of the plants occurring in a stand can be made by species names and by life forms. A list of all species is desirable, usually only vascular plants, bryophytes, and lichens can be recognized in the field. It is often necessary to take herbarium specimens and such vouchers will document the study permanently. Ordinary taxonomic nomenclature is usually used, but a constant effort to improve this and to split the species into biotypes of more uniform relationships to environments must be made. The species list is limited because within a given community the rate of increase of species number with increase in area is inversely proportional to the area investigated.

**Characteristic species.** Some kind of plants are characteristic of a particular species combination; they are found only in one kind of combination wherever they occur, or regionally, or perhaps locally. Other plants are always found in a particular plant community. Still other plants occur in several kinds of communities; some are almost ubiquitous. Advantage is taken of such facts to classify the plant found into characteristic species which are exclusive to a given kind of vegetation or always found in it, differential species which occur in only one of two related communities, and accompanying species which have little or no preference. The value of given plant community as an indicator of habitat is determined largely by its characteristic and differential species, and it is by the species that plant communities are recognized. See PLANT SOCIETIES.

**Properties of plant communities.** It is possible to arrange the list of species in a natural

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pop lat n [R.C.S.]

Nature of diseases l the br d n de  
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t t X f r m p l d th y l d of p o  
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Th s y m p t m f pl n t d e e s m a b d th  
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p l t = m a f f e c t a v p t f th pl a t t  
r t a g f g w h A p d d th f f ) g  
f l l e d b l g h t (F g 3) h a l o c i e d  
e e o e s t l f f p o t d f t p o t s. N e  
o f t m f k e s u l t k s (F g )  
W l t g m b e l w p d a d t n l l y  
m t p n e d d y th m t o l h e e o r  
e r r l l f l l w p e r s t t w l t g O r  
g w h m p w e d p m l y f d f f e e t a t e d  
l l l l e d g l l (F g 3) th t m t m b e  
l e c c m m n l y e d t d e g t t h e s t



Fig 1 C m m o b t l b l g h t of b (F m J C  
W l k Pl t P t h l g y 2 d d M G w H l l 1957)



Fig 2 S t h m b c t (w l t f t m t Th pl t  
h w i f e p a r y d w l t (A f t K l m f o m J C  
W l k W l t P t h l g y 2 d d M G w H l l 1957)



Fig 3 C o w n g a l l t p p l (A J R k f m J C  
W l k Pl t P t h l g y 2 d d M G w H l l 1957)

of eastern North America which almost totally killed one of the former leading dominants in this forest or the potential climatic changes which have been so well documented by pollen analyses of log sections are examples. If one of the factors determining a plant community change is an axiom of plant ecology that the community will change. See CLIMAX COMMUNITY.

**Distribution** The distribution of plant communities over the face of the earth has been studied more from a physiognomic than from a floristic viewpoint. Repetitions of physiognomically similar types of vegetation do occur in widely separated parts of the earth with similar climates. The evergreen sclerophyll chaparral of winter wet summer dry mild climates in the Mediterranean region of Europe, Australia, South Africa, California and Chile is an example of floristically completely diverse regions having at least superficial similarities in the appearance of plant communities because of their similar structure. See CLIMAX PLANT FORMATIONS.

**Classification** Finally plant communities may be classified. The most widespread system is that developed by J. Braun-Blanquet and used extensively in Europe. Floristically similar stands of vegetation with some characteristic species in common are abstracted into associations denoted by the terminus *etum*. Associations are combined into alliances (10n) these into orders (etalia) and these into classes (etec). Classes in general coincide with broad physiognomically defined kinds of vegetation or formations. The next higher unit is a floristic one recognizing such differences as those between the Mediterranean flora and that of central and northern Europe. Obviously if two regions have different floras they must also have different plant communities. See ANIMAL COMMUNITY COMMUNITY. [JMA]

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## Plant disease

A great obstacle to the successful production of cultivated plants, plant disease is also sometimes destructive in natural forests and grasslands. Despite large expenditures for control measures diseases annually destroy 10% to 10% of the crop plants in the United States before and after harvest resulting in a financial loss of at least \$3,000,000,000.

Diseases may destroy plant parts outright by rotting or may cause stunting or other malfunction. Most diseases are caused by parasitic microscopic organisms such as bacteria, fungi, algae, and nematodes or roundworm, although a few are caused by parasitic higher plants such as dodder and mistletoe. Many are caused by insects and some are caused by poor soil conditions, unfavorable weather or by harmful gases in the air.

The living organism and insect which cause diseases are called pathogens. Most pathogens can

multiply extremely rapidly; the bacteria in the division the fungi by producing spores which have as seeds but are much smaller and simpler in structure. Bacteria are about 0.005 in length and fairly large fungus spores about 0.001 in diameter. Particles are not visible with ordinary microscopes; they can multiply a millionfold in a short time. Roundworms reproduce by means of eggs.

Most pathogens can be disseminated quickly and widely by wind, water, insects, man and other animals. They infect plants through wounds, pores (stomata) or by penetrating plant surfaces. Each kind of pathogen can attack only certain kinds of plants or plant parts. Once inside the plant, however, pathogens obtain their nourishment from it in various ways: destroying plant tissue or weakening the plant by robbing it of its food substances. The rapidity of growth and reproduction of pathogens and of disease development varies with the kind of pathogen and host and with soil and weather conditions. Some pathogens thrive best in hot weather, others in cool weather. Extensive and destructive epidemic develop when all conditions are for the most rapid development of the pathogen.

Good cultural practices, chemical disinfection of planting material, spraying or dusting with appropriate chemicals to protect against air-borne infection and the use of resistant varieties are the principal control measures.

Discussed in the following sections are the economic importance, nature and causes of plant diseases, the characteristic growth and reproduction of pathogens, the infection stage and development of diseases, the dissemination of pathogens and the diseases to which plants are subject in storage. Discussion of other aspects can be found under separate titles or under the name of plant infected.

**Economic importance** All plants and their parts are subject to diseases which may be caused at various stages of their life cycle not only by microorganisms but also by higher plant-injurious salts in the soil and harmful gases in the air. Diseases may rot the seed, kill plants or make them poor and unsightly; they may cause root rot, stem canker and rot, leaf spots and blight, blossom blight and fruit cankers, molds, rot and fruit rot and in storage they cause rot of fleshy fruits and vegetable mold sickness of heat rice corn and other grains and discoloration or rotting of wood and wood products.

When weather favors their development, some diseases become epidemic and ruin vast acreage of economically important plants. The historic potato famine in Ireland in the 1840s resulting in the death of 1,000,000 people was due to epidemics of potato late blight. The rust blight has ruined the wheat harvest of the United States. Stem rot destroyed about 300,000,000 bushels of wheat in the United States and Canada in 1916. In the United States it destroyed 60% of the spring wheat in 1935 and 75% of the winter wheat and 25% of the spring bread wheat.



Fig 7 (a) d f i c y d f g d b t ( )  
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(b) l b m t d d m t b d f  
h w t m l t e d b t f m m l d t r d  
l i t l t h t f t h t  
l d t l l p f t h t t f m k r s  
(F m J C W R k P l t P t h l g y 2 d e d M G w  
H H 1957)



Fig 8 (a) b l k h n f p t (F m J C W R k  
P l t P t h l g y M G w H H 1950)

e s m a q e d B p p r m g  
e s m l y b d e m z s d t h m l  
s e d h m t m t t h t h e l l d  
t l m t l l e s f f t h l t t e  
m g t p l d m y e l t h d r y  
t f t b g w h h d t b d f i c y  
(F g 7) S P L A T I E R L S E S S E I L T O  
F q t l y d f e s f m l t b  
d t m e d b y l l y l e b t h e m  
l m y b p e s t l m l m b t t h t  
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B e s d e s l m m t f m y t h  
h e m l m y b e p e s t t h l d  
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t d g g t e a d g h t d m t o o m h  
t m y m l t h r m l g w t h w l l  
e s f l m y s e e c d t t g  
l f l l h m l b l a t h l m y l e o  
e s t i e s d t y ( l w p l l ) a l k a l t y

(high pH) e i t h r f w h c h m a y i n h b t n o r m a l  
p l a t g r o w t h ( e P L A T G R O W T H )

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C o n s i d e r i n g t o o m u c h w a t e r t h e s i l e r u l t s i n  
o y g e n d e f i c i e n c y w h h w i l l c a u s e s u f f o c a t i o n o f  
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m s t p l n t W t r h b u n g p l n t u h a r e e  
a p t o E e w a t e r i n t h l f o r e  
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t h s r e o f t e n c f s d w i t h t h e p u r l y p h y l o  
l g e f f c t o f t m u c h w a t e r

H i g h l t e m p e r a t u r e d u e t o t h e g r o w i n g e a  
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e c f p t a t ( F g 8 )

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h n c e a f f e c t s b t h t h e d i s t n m t e d a b o  
a d t h e a s w i t h w h i c h p l a n t r t s p e t t e t h e  
l ( e e S o i l )

W i n d r n d t W i n d l i g h t n g ( F g 9 )  
d h a l m y t r e p l a t d a u t d e a  
c h a t h e s u l t i n g f o m u n i b l t e m p e  
t ( F g 10 ) T e m p t e f f e c t r a g e f m



Fig 9 (a) l i g h t g i l l y f b b g  
w k f t h t r y d ( ) C l l t  
t h m t h g d l l w h t h g t d  
t h p l t ( b ) l t f p l t h w ( ) T h p t h  
w h b y t h h g p d t h g h t h r t d  
t h l g d d t t h p t h w k l l d d  
t h t l l p d d t t t f m d  
t h o v t y ( ) D r m t b d t m l t d t g w t h r  
l f l t b l w w h t h h g t d ( F m  
J C W R k P l t P a t h l g y 2 d d M G w H H  
1957)

tures. A bunch of small abnormal shoots is often referred to as a witches broom. Underdevelopment or stunting may affect the entire plant or only certain of its parts.

Chlorosis (lack of chlorophyll in varying degrees) is the most common nonstructural evidence of disease. For example, in leaves it may occur in stripes or in irregular spots (mosaic). Various degrees of curling and crinkling of the foliage generally accompany chlorosis. Sometimes there is also other abnormal coloration such as shade of red and brown.

A number of diseases may cause similar symptoms. These may be characteristic enough to permit diagnosis, but often it is necessary to identify the causal organism for exact diagnosis.

**Causes of plant diseases.** Usually two or more causes operate simultaneously to produce plant disease. For example, if a parasite is involved, the weather will influence the growth of the parasite as well as the plant's susceptibility to the parasite. The following subsections describe the influence on plant diseases of animals, plants, and viruses, soil conditions, weather, agricultural practices, industrial by-products, and plant metabolism.

**Animals, plants, and viruses.** Nematodes and insects are the animals that most commonly cause plant disease (Fig 4). Although herbivorous animals, including many insects, bite off and swallow plant parts, the parts removed are not diseased and the animals are predators, not pathogens. However, the loss of the parts eaten may cause the rest of the plant to become diseased. Conversely, some insects are true pathogens because they remain on or in the plant and cause disease symptoms typically associated with the insects involved. Such

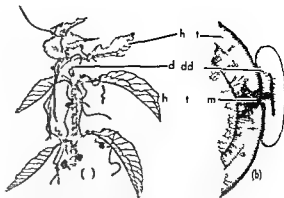


Fig 5 (a) Dodder attached to host. (b) Section through host and showing haustorium of dodder extending into the host. (From F. W. Emerson & C. Bolander, 2d ed. Blackiston, 1954)



Fig 6 (a) Potassium deficiency of cabbage. (b) Iron deficiency of cabbage. (c) Magnesium deficiency of bean. (From J. C. Walker, Plant Pathology, 2d ed. McGraw-Hill, 1957)

symptoms may include yellowing, leaf curl, and overgrowths. Many nematodes are true parasites, hence pathogens, since they cause root overgrowths and other plant abnormalities (see SECTION NEMATODA).

Certain algae, fungi, and bacteria are plant pathogens that cause disease. Most plant diseases are due to fungi. Less than 200 are known to be caused by bacteria, and even fewer are caused by algae and parasitic seed plants such as dodder and mistletoe (Fig 5).

Many plant diseases are caused by viruses, which are neither plants nor animals, but behave like living things in many ways and may properly be called pathogens (see PLANT VIRUS).

**Soil conditions.** Deficiencies of mineral nutrients in the soil are a frequent cause of plant disease (Fig 6). Often the deficiency can be identified by characteristic plant symptoms. For example, yellowing of the leaf tip and midrib of corn indicates nitrogen deficiency; yellowing of the margin of a potato leaf indicates potassium deficiency. However, the symptoms may vary somewhat in different plant species. In addition, deficiency diseases may be difficult to distinguish since they sometimes resemble those caused by viruses.

Besides nitrogen, potassium, and phosphorus, which plants need in relatively large amounts, smaller quantities of sulphur, calcium, and mag-



Fig 4 Nematode galls caused by *Meloidogyne* sp. (a) On tomato. (b) On onion. (c) On alfalfa. (From J. C. Walker, Plant Pathology, 2d ed. McGraw-Hill, 1957)



Fig 7 Bod F ryd se fig d n bet ( )  
t m l a f t o t h e d r y e m b l  
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w t m l d b f m m o l d r e d  
t o l c o l t h s l o o f t h o o t  
d t o l l p e o f t h o t t e t m l m  
From J C W l k Pl P t h l g y 2 d e d M G w  
(1937)

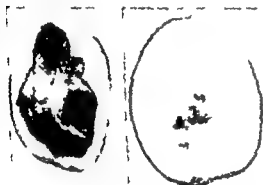


Fig 8 M l k h r t o f p t t F m J C W l k  
Pl P t h l g y M G w H l 1950)

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u e d i c h m t m n t t t t e a l l e d  
t e l m e t H e r e l o f t i l t e r t  
m g a t y p a l d i e e m y u l t l d s  
o t l t b a g w h d t b o n d e f i n e y  
(Fig 7) S e P L A N T M I N E R A L S E S S V T I A L T O  
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d t r m e d b y o l a l y a l n e b u t h m i  
e l m y b e p e n t n h e m l m b i n t t h t  
p l t a n o t e F r x m p l n s i e n  
l a b h g h l m e d l e f t s p e e n t  
t s o l i p p e c b l e q u n t t e ( P v r m  
A L T R I T I O )  
B e s d l m m t o f m a n y t h  
h m l m b e p r e t m t h l a d a u e  
p l t d i E l l b l t a u s l k i  
j u y d g r t d u g h t d a m a g e t m h  
t g m y t m l a t a b o m a l g r w t h w h l e  
x e o f b o n m y a u e e c n d t u t g  
U ( o a b ) h e m l b l c t h l m a y a l  
u l t e e s d t y ( l w p l l ) l k l y

(h i g h l l ) m l r f w l l m a s i l t n r l  
p l t g r t l ( s l a r w w a t e )

T h e e d i t h p i n c i p a l o n r f w a t e r w h l  
H i g h t n e e d s a r y i n g a m n t l e p e l n g r i n  
t h p e e s T l t l a s i l l w a t e r f m w l  
a n l b e w t t l s t s l i n w l i n g l a n t  
e n r e e v e r f m l i m e d ( t r a n t ) w i t h g l t  
i f t a p r l n g e d t h e a f f e c t e d g r t l ( P L A N T  
W A T E R R E L A T I O ) l e g r e e a r f n l m  
a g e d l n t r e l n w a r m w l l y i n  
w a t e r w l n t w i t h f r z n a n t h y c a n n t a l  
s o r l u f f i n t w a t e r t r p l t l

C o e r l y t o m i t w a t e r l n t l r e s t l e i n  
o x y g e n d f i y w h i c h w l l a s u f f e r t n l  
t l t s e s f r o m a l t h e r o d e r g t s l p a r t l  
m t p l a n t W a t e r l a l i n g p l t c h a t i  
a r e x p l s F r e e w a t e r i n t w i t h a t r  
t s l i l f f u g u a n l a t i l d a l  
t l e a f n n e d w i t h t p a r t l y l y  
l g e f f e c t f r m i d w a t e

H i g h t t e m p e r a t u r d r i n g t h g r w h a  
s o m y l o n d e f r i t a n t i n a l  
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F i g 9 l t s W i n d l i g h t n g l g 9 t  
a n d l a l m t j u e g l a t a d w e r e d  
l a t h e s l i g f m u n l l t m p e r  
t e s ( f i g 10 ) T e m p e r a t u r f e e t r n g l n



Fig 9 l i g h t g r y f e b b g m o l  
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t h p l o s ( b ) l t o f p l t h w l ( ) T h p h  
w h b y t h c h g p d t h o g h t h o r i d  
t h v o c l g o d t T h p h w o k i l d d  
o t h r l l p e d d t s o t f o m d t  
t h t y ( ) D o m t b d t m u l t d t o g w t h o t  
l f s i t b e l w w h t h c h g l d ( F m  
J C W o l k e Pl n t P a t h l g y 2 d e d M G w H l  
1937)

tures. A bunch of small abnormal shoots is often referred to as a witches broom. Underdevelopment or stunting may affect the entire plant or only certain of its parts.

Chlorosis (lack of chlorophyll in varying degrees) is the most common non structural evidence of disease. For example in leaves it may occur in stripes or in irregular patches (mosaic). Various degrees of curling and crinkling of the foliage generally accompany chlorosis. Sometimes there is also other abnormal coloration such as shades of red and brown.

A number of diseases may cause similar symptoms. These may be characteristic enough to permit diagnosis, but often it is necessary to identify the causal organism for exact diagnosis.

**Causes of plant diseases.** Usually two or more causes operate simultaneously to produce plant disease. For example if a parasite is involved the weather will influence the growth of the parasite as well as the plant's susceptibility to the parasite. The following subsections describe the influence on plant diseases of animals, plants and viruses, soil conditions, weather, agricultural practices, industrial by products, and plant metabolism.

**Animals, plants and viruses.** Nematodes and insects are the animals that most commonly cause plant disease (Fig 4). Although herbivorous animals including many insects bite off and swallow plant parts, the parts removed are not diseased and the animals are predators, not pathogens. However the loss of the parts eaten may cause the rest of the plant to become diseased. Conversely some insects are true pathogens because they remain on or in the plant and cause disease symptoms typically associated with the insects involved. Such

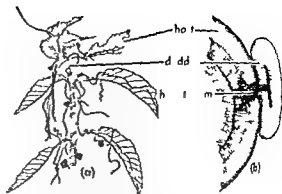


Fig 5 (a) Dodder attached to host (b) Section through host showing haustorium of dodder extending into the host (From F W Emery & S G Baskin 2d ed Blackston 1954)



Fig 6 (a) Potassium deficiency disease of cabbage (b) Iron deficiency disease of cabbage (c) Magnesium deficiency disease of bea (From J C Walker Plant Pathology 2d ed McGraw Hill 1957)

symptoms may include yellowing, leaf curl, and overgrowth. Many nematodes are true parasites, hence pathogens, since they cause root growths and other plant abnormalities (see SECTION NEMATODES).

Certain algae, fungi and bacteria are plant pathogens that cause disease. Most plant diseases are due to fungi, less than 200 are known to be caused by bacteria, and even fewer are caused by algae and parasitic seed plants such as dodder and mistletoe (Fig 5).

Many plant diseases are caused by viruses which are neither plants nor animals but behave like living things in many ways and may properly be called pathogens (PLANT VIRUS).

**Soil conditions.** Deficiencies of mineral nutrients in the soil are a frequent cause of plant disease (Fig 6). Often the deficiency can be identified by characteristic plant symptoms. For example yellowing of the leaf tips and midribs indicate nitrogen deficiency, yellowing of the margins potassium deficiency, and yellowing between the veins somewhat in different plant species. In addition, deficiency diseases may be difficult to distinguish since they sometimes resemble those caused by viruses.

Besides nitrogen, potassium and phosphorus, which plants need in relatively large amounts, smaller quantities of sulphur, calcium and



Fig 4 Nematode gall infected by Meloidogyne (a) tomato (b) c) On parsnip (After C. A. D. J. from J. C. Walker Plant Pathology 2d ed McGraw Hill 1957)







Fig 10 Freezing injury of pepper. Symptom which are apparent several weeks after injury (a) Enlargement of the new growth point (b) Nth young stipe of the stipules and the first pair of leaflets have abnormal shapes and the second pair of leaflets do not form (c) Necrotic band on a pair of leaflets which were developing at the time of injury (F. M. J. C. Walker Plant Pathology 2d ed. McGraw-Hill 1957)

poor development of plants grown in climates too cold or too warm to actual frost or heat damage. For example tomatoes grow poorly and drop their blossoms in cool weather direct sunlight on the fruit may kill the tissue causing sunscald and the foliage is severely damaged by even light frosts that would not harm cabbage.

Exposure to gradually decreasing temperatures in the autumn hardens perennial plants such as fruit trees against winter cold but exposure to the sun in the late winter may make the bark tender again. This tissue is killed when it freezes at night causing another kind of sunscald.

Although high temperatures may literally cook plant tissue with such results as heat canker of young flax and sunscald of tomato fruit the commonest effect is to increase water loss by transpiration resulting in drought damage. Wind has the same effect the degree depending upon its velocity and relative humidity.

In most green plants deficiency of light causes weak spindly growth and chlorosis although some species can endure much shade. House plants are frequently affected in this manner but excess shading by buildings or other plants will produce the same effect out of doors.

**Agricultural practices** Mismanagement of land including untimely application of irrigation water and fertilizer can cause plant disease but other agricultural practices are frequent injury. The more common of these injuries result from the improper use of chemicals such as fungicides in ecti-

cides and herbicides (see AGRICULTURE FUNGICIDE INSECTICIDE HERBICIDE)

Nearly all fungicides are injurious to plants as well as to fungi although the damage to the plant is usually much less than the potential injury from the diseases controlled by the fungicides. Examples of effects are increased transpiration caused by Bordeaux mixture on tomatoes etiolation of fruit caused by lime sulphur on apple and yield reductions without visible symptoms caused by other chemicals. Conversely the fungicide may contain a nutrient such as zinc that is deficient in the soil and much better growth of the plant may result.

Chemicals used for seed treatment are frequently toxic especially to some species of plant. For example plants of the cabbage family are injured by copper containing seed treatment materials. Vegetative organs like potato tubers are very susceptible to chemical injury and strong poisons like mercuric chloride often do more harm than good. Material applied to the soil to control fungi bacteria and nematodes may injure plants grown in the soil too soon after treatment.

Some crop plants are very sensitive to herbicides being affected by very minute amounts of such things as 24-D (24 dichlorophenoxyacetic acid). Tomatoes may be affected from sources far removed. Symptoms of 24-D are sometimes confused with those of virus diseases.

**Industrial by products** The fumes from ore smelters frequently cause widespread symptoms of plant disease including stunting yellowing and necrosis. Where atmospheric mercurion layer prevents the escape of air traffic and domestic fumes may be toxic (see ATMOSPHERIC POLLUTION).

**Plant metabolism products** Brown areas on stored apples (scald) may be caused by ethylene gas produced by the apples (Fig. 11). This gas occurs in small quantities in many healthy plant tissues but is produced in greater amount by diseased and aging cells. Ethylene gas may also cause yellowing in plants and it accelerates ripening in certain fruits such as banana (see PLANT METABOLISM).

## PLANT DISEASE PATHOGENS

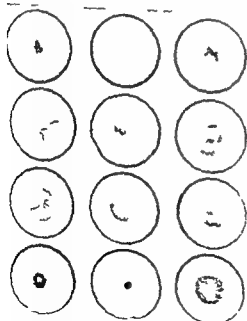
Most pathogens are grouped primarily on the basis of their structure but bacteria being morphologically simple are classified to a considerable extent by physiological character. Viruses represent



Fig 11 Apple scald (USDA)

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vegetables



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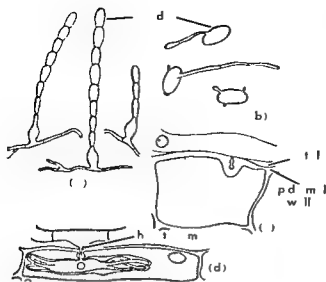


Fig 15 *Erysiphe graminis* (a) Conidia and spores (b) Germinating conidia (c) Penetration of cuticle and epidermal wall (d) Haustorium (e) Bacterial cell after infection (f) Bacterial cell after infection (g) Bacterial cell after infection (h) Bacterial cell after infection (i) Bacterial cell after infection (j) Bacterial cell after infection (k) Bacterial cell after infection (l) Bacterial cell after infection (m) Bacterial cell after infection (n) Bacterial cell after infection (o) Bacterial cell after infection (p) Bacterial cell after infection (q) Bacterial cell after infection (r) Bacterial cell after infection (s) Bacterial cell after infection (t) Bacterial cell after infection (u) Bacterial cell after infection (v) Bacterial cell after infection (w) Bacterial cell after infection (x) Bacterial cell after infection (y) Bacterial cell after infection (z) Bacterial cell after infection

**Symbiotic relations of organisms** Parasitism is the one of a series of associations characterized by intimate physical union of taxonomically dissimilar organisms. Such relationships are known as symbiosis and may be neutral, beneficial or harmful to the symbionts. An association such as that of legumes and nodule bacteria, beneficial to both partners, is called mutualistic symbiosis. Parasitism is antagonistic symbiosis.

There are different degrees of parasitism. In the early stages the association between rust fungi and their hosts may appear to be almost neutral, harming the plants little. Other fungi, such as those rotting fruit, can become established only in dead tissue, producing enzymes or toxins that kill adjacent living cells which they then inhabit. Some biologists say that such organisms are apophytes, not parasites, because they never colonize living host tissue. But the term parasitism is generally used to refer to a relationship with the host plant as a whole because the degree of intimate relationship is often difficult to determine.

**Ecologic relations of organisms** Associations of organisms in the same environment without physical union are called ecologic and are often very important in plant diseases (see Ecology). As in symbiosis, the effects may be beneficial, neutral or harmful. Mutualism occurs when one organism uses a substance for food and produces a by-product that enables another to grow. If the benefit is reciprocal, the relationship is called synergism, as when the fungus *Mycorhiza* and plants produce pyrimidine and *Rhodospirillum rubrum*, a non-parasitizing yeast, make thiazole (see CRYPTOCOCCALES, PHYCOMYCETES). The chemical are compounds of thiamine which both organisms need but which neither can produce alone. If deleterious substances (antibiotics) are produced, the relationship is called antitoxin.

All of the relationships may be important to the survival of certain plant pathogens, especially those which live in the oil part of the time. Metabolic and synergistic relationships may help them to survive; antagonistic relationships will hinder survival. One of the goals of the plant pathologist is to encourage antibiotics that will eliminate certain oil-inhabiting pathogens.

**Ecologic associations** may exist between two or more pathogens inhabiting the same host plant in a common environment. When fire blight bacteria parasitize apple twigs and permit the entrance of canker and wood rotting fungi, the relationship between the bacteria and the fungi is metabolic. The molds *Oospora citri aurantii* and *Penicillium ditatum* can rot fruit more rapidly together than either can alone. This is synergism. Antagonism seems to exist between races of the potato late blight fungus and one will replace the other when they parasitize a potato plant together.

Even the relationship of host and pathogens may be ecologic at first. For example, *Rhizoctonia solani* in the oil causes visible injury to the roots of soybean before touching them. Accordingly, the fungus is at first antibiotic to soybean, later it becomes parasitic and pathogenic. [C.R.]

**Growth and reproduction** Many plant pathogens, especially among the bacteria, fungi and viruses, can multiply with amazing rapidity under favorable conditions. Viruses, although not generally considered living organisms, may increase a millionfold a few days after introduction into the right place in the right kind of living plant where temperature and other environmental conditions are favorable to the virus.

**Food requirements of bacteria and fungi** Although lack of chlorophyll prevents the organism from using solar energy in photosynthesis, carbohydrates from carbon dioxide and water, a green plant do their basic nutrient requirements. They require carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, phosphorus and sulfur, a structural element. In addition, they need the metallic elements: potassium, magnesium, iron, zinc, copper, calcium, gallium, manganese, molybdenum, sodium and cadmium. Potassium and magnesium are needed in relatively large amounts and are designated macronutrients; the other elements of which are needed in minute amounts are often designated micronutrients. Vitamins, enzymes and hormones are also needed for growth and reproduction.

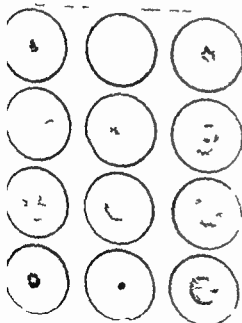
**Experimental purities** pure cultures of facultative saprophytes are grown in the laboratory on sterilized synthetic media containing sugar or some other source of carbon, all of the other necessary elements and essential vitamins for those organisms which cannot synthesize their own. Natural plant products used as potato broth, steamed cornmeal or oatmeal, often are used as nutrient media. Liquid media are used for some purposes; for other the nutrient solutions are held in gelatin or agar. Nutrient media are used for

and reproduce at best determined by any of the composition of the medium and the effects of temperature and light and then in the effects of the different elements of the medium. In the first place, the medium must be able to support the growth of the plant. In the second place, the medium must be able to support the growth of the plant. In the third place, the medium must be able to support the growth of the plant.

of the effect of the different elements of the medium. In the first place, the medium must be able to support the growth of the plant. In the second place, the medium must be able to support the growth of the plant. In the third place, the medium must be able to support the growth of the plant.

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16. Effect of the different elements of the medium. In the first place, the medium must be able to support the growth of the plant. In the second place, the medium must be able to support the growth of the plant. In the third place, the medium must be able to support the growth of the plant.



Fig 17 Spore producing branches of *Puccinia* similar to the one from which the diagram cell is obtained. Chains of spores are produced on the ends of branches (U. M. Ag. Exp. Sta.)

The time required is only about a week at 75 F but it increases to a month at 50 and even longer as temperature decreases. Each new pore can cause a new infection and this process continues at a rate that varies greatly with temperature, moisture, and light until the wheat starts to ripen or growth is otherwise checked. Then the winter spores (teliospores) are produced; these differ from urediospores in appearance and cannot normally germinate until they have been exposed to winter weather. The apple scab fungus (*Venturia inaequalis*) may produce many successive crops of asexual spores (conidia) on the fruit and leaves during the growing season. But it does not produce sexual spores until the following spring on infected leaves that have fallen to the ground the previous autumn. Some fungi such as the ergot fungus (*Claviceps purpurea*) produce sclerotia bodies made up of densely interwoven hyphae which may survive winters or other unfavorable conditions and then produce fruiting structures under appropriate conditions in the spring.

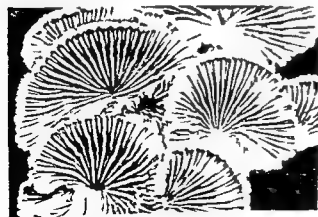


Fig 18 Fruiting bodies of a habit from *Schizophyllum*. Basidiospores are produced on the ends of the gills. *Schizophyllum* the gills are pit like giths dry weather they are pad like and protect the surface which produces (U. M. Ag. Exp. Sta.)

Special stimuli are sometimes necessary to initiate the formation of fruit bodies (Fig 18) so fungi require the stimulus of light for fruiting although they grow well in darkness. Others require special temperature; others require certain nutrients or vitamins.

How, where, when, and the rate at which fungi grow and reproduce depend on their inheritance and their environment. The inheritance determines the limits within which the behavior of each kind of fungus can vary, and the environment determines its behavior under particular combinations of conditions. [E.C.]

## INFECTION AND DEVELOPMENT OF DISEASE

Infection of plants by a pathogen terminates a series of events that begins with inoculation, which is the contact of a susceptible part of a plant with the inoculum. Inoculum is any infectious part of the pathogen, such as spore, bacterial cell, or virus particles. Typically, inoculation is followed by entrance into the host and infection follows, taking nourishment from it.

The time between inoculation and infection is the incubation period. Because it is often difficult to tell when infection occurs, the incubation period is usually counted as the time between inoculation and the appearance of the first symptoms of infection.

The probability that infection will follow inoculation depends upon the vigor of the inoculum, the duration of favorable environmental conditions, and the resistance of the host (see PLANT DISEASE CONTROL). Usually only a small part of the inoculum produced reaches a susceptible plant, and only a small fraction infects the plant. Consequently most plant pathogens survive and are destructive partly because they produce fantastically large amounts of inoculum.

**The inoculum.** Inoculum of virus and bacteria consists of the individual virus particles or bacterial cells. In the case of fungi, the inoculum may be pieces of hyphae or specialized structures such as sclerotia. Pathogenic plant lice and nematodes produce eggs both of which function as inoculum.

Bacteria and viruses produce billions of cells or virus particles in infected plants, and each one can infect another plant. Fungi produce spores on the surface of hyphal growth in a variety of specialized structures which may be as large as the giant puffball or almost invisible to the unaided eye (Fig 19). Some of the spore-producing structures function over a considerable period of time and like bacteria produce prodigious amounts of inoculum.

Bacteria and viruses are somewhat restricted in their pathogenicity, having no special means of liberating themselves from the host, although the bacteria may zoize in sticky droplets. For dormancy or transmission the pathogen depends chiefly upon plant contact, even when the host is





Fig 17 Spore producing branches of *Helminthosporium* blight from which the drug penicillin is obtained. Chain of spores produced on the ends of branches (*U. M. Agr. Exp. Sta.*)

The time required is only about a week at 75 F but it increases to a month at 50 and even longer as temperature decreases. Each new spore can cause a new infection and this process continues at a rate that varies greatly with temperature, moisture, and light until the wheat starts to ripen or growth is otherwise checked. Then the winter spores (teliospores) are produced; these differ from uredinoid pores in appearance and cannot normally germinate until they have been exposed to winter weather. The apple scab fungus (*Venturia inaequalis*) may produce many successive crops of asexual spores (conidia) on the fruit and leaves during the growing season. But it does not produce sexual spore until the following spring on infected leaves that have fallen to the ground the previous autumn. Some fungi such as the ergot fungus (*Claviceps purpurea*) produce sclerotia bodies made up of densely interwoven hyphae which may survive winters or other unfavorable conditions and then produce fruiting structure under appropriate conditions in the spring.

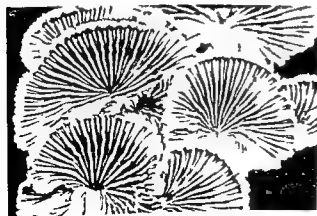


Fig 18 Fruiting bodies of *Schizophyllum commune* on the gills of a mushroom. The gills of the mushroom are dry weather they collapse and the caldipotethrification which spores are born (*U. M. Agr. Exp. Sta.*)

Special stimuli are sometimes necessary to initiate the formation of fruit bodies (Fig 18) so that fungi require the stimulus of light for fruiting although they grow well in darkness. Some require special temperature; others require certain nutrients or vitamins.

How, where, when, and the rate at which fungi grow and reproduce depend on their inheritance and their environment. The inheritance determines the limits within which the behavior of each kind of fungus can vary, and the environment determines its behavior under particular combinations of conditions. [E. C. T.]

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Bacteria and viruses produce billions of cells or virus particles in an infected plant, and each new unit that enters a new plant can infect another plant. Fungi produce spores on the surface of hyphal growth or in a variety of specialized structures which may be large as the giant puffball or almost invisible to the unaided eye (Fig 19). Some of the spore-producing structures function over a considerable period of time and like bacteria produce prodigious amounts of inoculum.

Bacteria and viruses are somewhat restricted in their pathogen by having a special means of liberation; they elude the host although the bacteria may ooze out in sticky droplets. For dissemination or transmission the pathogens depend chiefly upon plant contact.

man with yach...





for a host stimulant will prevent wastage of spores in the absence of the host

When a nondormant spore is placed under favorable conditions germination may follow in 45 minutes or only after several days depending upon the species age of the spores and variations in the environment. Since conditions change rapidly germination is a critical time for a fungus because if it does not penetrate the host quickly the germ tube may be killed especially by dryness. It is at this stage that fungi are most easily killed by fungicides.

**Establishment in the host** For bacteria and viruses entering a host is a passive process. Bacteria accidentally get into injuries or are put there by insects or other agencies; they may also be drawn by water into tomato hydathodes or nectaries. Viruses often are placed in the host by insects but many can be transmitted when the sap from infected plants comes in contact with minute wounds in healthy plants.

Spores of fungi may also be carried into plants by various agencies but many species have active means of penetration, the method usually being characteristic of the species. In some germ tubes enter stomata by producing a flat structure (appressorium) over the stoma from which a hypha grows through the opening (Fig 21). Others ignore the stomata; instead the appressorium adheres to the cuticle of the plant and forces a slender infection peg directly through the protective layer (Fig 22). This apparently is accomplished entirely by pressure as no enzyme action has been demonstrated.

Animal pathogens like nematodes have special mouth parts that pierce the plant and the nematode may remain external or it may actually enter the plant.

Even after penetration pathogens may fail to infect due to the presence of mechanical barriers, lack of proper nutrients or the presence of inhibiting toxic substances. These factors depend not only on specific interactions between host and pathogen but also upon the environment. Successful establishment of the pathogen may mean killing the host cells and living upon the dead tissue with or without the actual penetration of living cells. [C. J. E.]

**Development within the host** After a pathogen has become established in a susceptible host the rate of disease development under favorable conditions follows a sigmoid (s shaped) curve with three major aspects: (1) the lag phase or incubation period when infection is not evident externally; (2) the exponential phase when the pathogen spreads rapidly in host tissues and symptoms and signs of disease appear; and (3) the senescence phase when limiting mechanisms of either host or pathogen restrict further extension.

Disease development varies with genetic susceptibility of the host, genetic aggressiveness of the pathogen, and with many environmental factors that influence the host, the pathogen, and the inter-

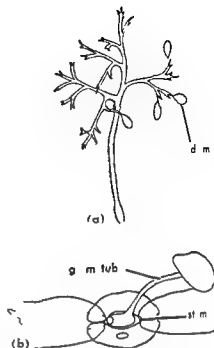


Fig 21 *Penicillium destictor* (a) Conidiophore bearing conidia (b) Conidium germinating by a germ tube the latter penetrating a stoma (From J. C. Walker Plant Pathology 2d ed. McGraw-Hill 1957)

actions between the two. Environmental factors influence the growth rates and the metabolism of the host and the pathogen, and the interrelations between these activities determine the pattern of disease development. Furthermore, the effects of past environmental conditions on the host may affect disease development, a condition known as predisposition when host susceptibility is increased. The combined effects of these factors on growth and development of healthy crop plants in nature are poorly understood and the problem becomes increasingly complex when the plants become diseased.

Climate often determines the adaptability of plant species to geographic areas and may also determine the geographic distribution of their diseases. For each disease there are minimum optimum and maximum values for each critical environmental factor. The mean measurements of

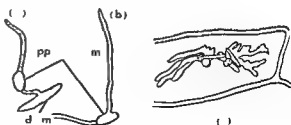
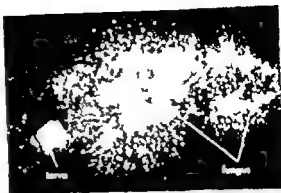


Fig 22 *Clitostomum* (a) Conidium with germ tube and penetration peg (b) Germ tube and penetration peg of the host cell (From J. C. Walker Plant Pathology 2d ed. McGraw-Hill 1957)

d p b i t h d m n a t u n f p l t i l  
f i n g b y t h s m e l l l u l e m e s t  
e d S e p t o a a d P h m b o t h f w h l a i e a  
l t t d e o f p l a n t d i e a e s , p r o d u c e c o n d i a i n a  
k y m a t x t h p i d ( f i t g b o d i e s ) l  
w e a t h e r t h p e s e o t t e d r l S p e s  
S p t a a r c o l w h h e s a l e a d a f  
l g l e f p e k t b e p r e a d l o c a l l  
p l h g r a d p d p e u m a b l y m t p  
s f b o t h S p t d P h m a r p d  
i m y b p e d f a t h e r t h a l c l l i n c e  
o f P h o m a f e q t i v a r f d i r a i l  
r g m l e i t h a i r T h d e m i t f  
e s e d m l a r f g h m b a t f r i  
d d d e s r e s m t d

**Dissemination by insects** M a n y o f t h e m t  
t i e d f e e m p l a n t m  
p d h e f f y h b y t s , e s p e c i a l l l e f  
p p d p h d ( e l e m e n t a l ) e f f i e  
p d l l y i n l i m i t e d t h d t a n t h e e r t  
f l y b t o c l l y t h e s e c t e d a l l  
h e m a b e e d m a m l b y t h w d  
B l t f i t e e s d D i t c h l m d e a  
s o t h d b y p e c i e s ( C t t m l l e a r  
e d f m f t e d t h l i t h y t r e e b y l r k l e e l e s  
T h b e e l o c u l t h l i t h y t r e e s w i t h f  
g m t h e f m a d a d k l l t h e t r e e t h t h  
t r e d e d b y g e s m l s f t h b k  
b e e t l e s h h b e d d e t h b a k W i t t h  
b l e s t h f g l d t b f l s l d m i  
a t e d d w i t h t h f g t h e l e t l w l d  
d l t d m g d l t h a t n  
d h l i t h y t e e y u m b e r  
f e c t s l e p b l i d e l p m n t f  
p d m f g t l d g r a d l i t e d  
l P m r y f e c t f t h f l w f t h e s  
p l t b y C l p p p b y w d b o e  
m ( A s c o r y r s ) T h p r m y f e c  
t l l y r y l h t b i t w t h f w d t h  
f t e d f l p d l m b f i d  
t d t k y f l d T h e f l d t t t  
t n m l l f e s w h w l l w t h e p e s t h e  
t t h f l d m d i t h f t L k  
w p p e s f m y t f g e d e d  
m t t t i t f e s w h h r y t h  
p f m p m t t h d s e  
f r i l t f t h t f g R t l y g  
f u g l m t h d m t h b f d  
t l y t r r y l m f f g t h t e d e  
t t f t e d g r b t l s o t h  
m t t t f t h g r d t h b l t h  
f g t g w f t d m d m g ( F g  
24)

**Dissemination by other animals** E d t h p  
t t h f g t h t h t t b l i g h t  
c a r r d b y w d p k d l y m l l p  
f t h f g h b w h e d f m t h f t f  
g l b d T h w d p k p b b l y t l y  
p d t h f g l l b b t l s o b t d  
t h m g t f t h p d r t h t h p d f  
t h d t t d l t t k w w h t h  
m y b d t h t l f l i g h t s l g d t



Fg 24 F g i t h r u s e d t o t o f s t o d  
g g o w g f m l r v f g l f t g l  
s e t t h l a r w a f d f e c t d t o k l l o c l m  
t h h d f i t b o d y S e l p o f A p  
g l l g w i g o t f o m t h i n t l o f t h l t

m g a t i r g l a r l y a r r y s p o e s f l g n t p t h o  
g a n d d m i t t h m f l e c t l l i t t e m  
h i g h l y p r l a l l T l r i f l i s t r o d t a n l  
t h r a n i m a l i n t h l o c a l l g d t a n l  
a t n f l g n t p t h g n r e q r e s m t e t g  
u n

**Dissemination by man** M a n h a b e e r p o n i  
l l f r a p d a l w i s e q l l m n a t n f m  
f t h e m d e s t r u t i e s f h e r m m  
p l t s B e l e t h e m m u l l r n t g u  
t u r e f m y g l t d e s w a d e c r e d a b o u t  
1850 t h i d w a h l i e d a l l m  
t t x a l l e F n t o d y w i l r g i p e c  
t n f l p n t m t r a l m m r n d e r r e  
t e t a t h h p m t f m n y p l n t a d p l n t  
p t d i e m t n f l p t h g n b y n a  
b y m e l m t e d n d f l l y w i l l n t n  
i b e l a g e s a t w i l l g r l e f r m a  
y r t e m A f w m y l e s g p e d a d n g  
t t h u l a g t f t h d a l l t r a t e t l  
a t r o f h p r a d t h d m a g t h m l  
c e d e a d m e f t h d f f u l t e s i n v l e d i n l a l t  
g r d i g p e a d f p l a t d e s l y m a  
f u s d m e s C o m m i s g r w e r f p o t t e s  
t h e t h r m U n i t d S t e s a l l y l i a n t h e  
t o c k f e e d r p l n t g t u l f m t h t r n  
t t s c h f l y b e u f t h e d f f u l t y f p o d  
g f e e d t k n t h S o u t h B i f r  
m y y e r t h q l t y f e d p i t e s g w n  
t h N t h w s e r t e m l t s w e e h l m  
f e c t d w i t h m i d e s t h t g r a l l y  
d d t h y l d f t h r p g w n f r m l  
t c k S e b s 1920 e d e t h a t n d p a t  
m t h b t a b l h e d t h r t h n t t  
t h t p r d e d p a t F l d l p t t r e  
m e d e l t i m e s d g t h n l y m  
p t e t p t a n d t b s t e s t e d i t l  
g r h d g t h w n t u e t h t n d e  
t e c t b l d d t h d t k S m  
t m m p t i s p d e y m p  
t h w t h t d t t n S c h w e n p d

epidemics requires (1) abundant viable inoculum of a virulent physiologic race of the pathogen disseminated widely and rapidly at the proper times (2) dense and extensive populations of a susceptible host in a receptive stage of development and (3) optimal conditions of the environmental factors affecting production and germination of inoculum penetration of the host by the pathogen and rapidity of disease development. Generally epidemics develop from successive cycles of dissemination inoculation infection growth and multiplication of the pathogen as all requirements rarely are fulfilled simultaneously.

These interrelations were illustrated by the progression of an artificially induced epidemic of black stem rust in a field of Marquis wheat at St. Paul, Minn. in 1956 (see Fig. 23). The epidemic was initiated by inoculation with urediospores (summer spores) carried in oil. Inoculations of the wheat June 13 and 15 resulted in an initial incidence on June 23 of 15 to 20 pustules per stem which was sufficient for abundant dissemination and inoculation of the wheat for favorable infection periods associated with heavy rain June 25 and lighter precipitation June 30 and July 1. Pustules from secondary infections were maturing by July 4 and an epidemic developed rapidly resulting in completely diseased wheat within the following two weeks.

[JBR]

#### DISSEMINATION OF PLANT PATHOGENS

Effective dissemination of pathogens requires that the inoculum be carried in viable condition to host plants that are susceptible to infection and that the conditions at the time favor germination of the inoculum and infection of the host plants. Knowledge of the means of dissemination of a given

pathogen often is basic to control of the disease or diseases it causes.

**Dissemination by wind.** Spores are discharged into the air or picked up by even the slightest of air currents and carried by chance to susceptible hosts sometimes only to nearby plants sometimes for hundreds of miles.

**Local dissemination.** The conidia (spores) of sporangia of many of the downy mildew fungi are produced only at night or during periods of light or drizzly weather. They are very sensitive to drying and to sunlight and usually can be effectively disseminated for only short distances. A single maize plant infected with *Sclerospora philippinensis* is estimated to produce from 1,000,000,000 to more than 5,000,000,000 spores of the fungus in a single night. Given a succession of nights favorable for production, spread and infection, local epidemics of this and similar diseases can build up rapidly.

The fungus *Cronartium ribicola* which causes white pine blister rust can spread from wild currant plants (*Ribes*) to pines only by means of basidiospores which are small, delicate and short-lived. The basidiospores from wild currants can be disseminated effectively more than 900 ft. If a stand of white pines is free from blister rust, it is necessary only to eliminate the *Ribes* bushes within the stand and up to 900 ft. away to completely protect the pine from blister rust in the future. Most of the most valuable stands of white pines have been protected in this way.

The fungus *Ustilago tritici* which causes smut of wheat produces powdery masses of chlamydospores that replace the floral parts of infected plants. The chlamydospores are produced at the time the noninfected plants in the same field are producing their flowers. The wind carries the spores to flowers of adjacent plants and thus spreads infection locally. Although the spores can be carried long distances in favorable conditions, the short flowering period of the host plant ordinarily precludes effective long distance dissemination. The same pattern is followed by a number of other local smut fungi and the use of smut-free seed which eliminates the inoculum from a given field or area ordinarily is sufficient to protect the crops against these diseases.

**Long distance dissemination.** East of the Rocky Mountains a more or less continuous belt of wheat is grown from northern Mexico to central Canada and the wheat matures progressively from south to north. In many years epidemics of stem rust of wheat propagated by repeating urediospores of *Puccinia graminis* var. *tritici* strike wheat in northern Mexico and southern Texas. The spores are carried northward by the wind, sometimes in local advance sometimes in hordes that infect wheat over an area of several hundred thousand square miles. Essentially the same course of events prevails with this disease in India and in portions of Russia.

**Dissemination by water.** A number of saprophytic fungi are well adapted to spread by splash.

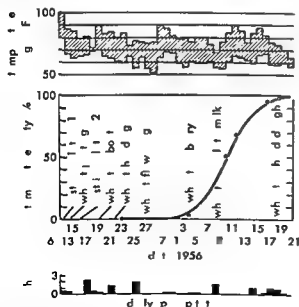
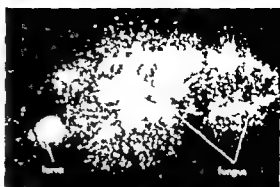


Fig. 23 Development of an epidemic of stem rust on Marquis wheat (F. M. J. B. R. W. H. O. I. L. A. T. O. F. W. H. A. T. W. I. T. H. P. O. F. P. A. G. M. I. T. Phyl. path. 1. gy. 47(11) 689-690 1957)

ing d p b t h d em n t of pl nt path  
g f n g i by th mea h b e n l i t t e c e u  
S p t r i d f h o m b o t h f w h i h e u e a  
m l t i t u d f p l n t d e p d u n d i a n  
t k y m t w i l p y c n d a ( f i t g l o d e s ) l  
t w e t t e t h e p o e s o e o t t e d r l S p o e s  
f S p t e l a w h a l e f d e a f  
y g l g l a f p e k w n t b p a d l o c a l l  
p l h r a d p d p e s u m b l y m t p e  
e s f b t h S p t a d P h m a e p e d  
T h y m a y b e p e a d f a r t h t h l o c a l l y  
p o e f P h o m a f q t l y a f o d i r t h  
l g e n m b i t h e a r T h e d e m a t i o n o f  
t h e d m l f g b y o m b a t f r  
a d w d d e e r e s m o i d y

Dissemination by insects Many of the most  
d t r u t e d f e r m p l a t a r e  
p d h f l y n l y b y i t e s p e c a l l l i  
l i p p d a s h d ( a e H e m i p t e r a ) E f f e c t  
e p e d u s l l y l i m i t e d t h d t a t e i n t  
c f l y b t c l l y t h e c t i n f e c t e d w t h  
t h m a y b a e d m y m l e l y t h w i d  
B l e s t f f e t r e e d d t c h l m d e s  
b o t h e d b y p e e s f C a t a t m l l r  
r e d f m n f i d t h e l i t h y t r e e s b y k l e e t l e s  
T h b e e l o c l a t h l i t h y t r e e s w t h t h f n  
g s t h f u g a d d k l l t h t e e s t h n t h  
t e e s n d e d b y g t e m b f t h b a r k  
b e t l h h b e d d r t h b a k W t h t h  
b t l e t h f n g l d t b e e f f e c t e l y d e m  
t e d d w t h t h f g u t l b e t l w l l  
d l u l d a m g a d a l y t h y t n  
d h l i t h y t e e s n y u m b  
l e c t a e l p b l e f d e l p m t f  
p d m f e g t w l d g d l i t e d  
l P r i m a r y f e c t n f t h f l w f t h e s e  
p l a t b y C l p p p u l y w d b a s  
( A s o t r e ) T h p m v f e  
t l l y l y g h t l t w t h a f w d t h e  
i n f e c t e d f w r p d u l a g u m b e s o f d  
w e t d t k y f l d T h f l d t i  
t m a l l f l w h h w a l l w n t h e p t h  
t t h f l w d s o s p d t h f e c t L k e  
w e p y n p f m y t f d d  
a m t t a t t f l e s w h i h r y t h  
p o f m p y m t o n t h a d u e  
f t l t f t h a s t f R e c t l y g r  
l e s t i n g w e v l m t h n d t s h b e f u d  
t o l y t r r y l u m f u g t h t u d e  
t t f t d g b t l t t h  
m t e t t f t h g d t h b l t h  
f g t g w f t d u m e d m g ( F g  
24)

Dissemination by other animals E d t h p  
a s t t h f t t t u e h e c t b l h t  
e a e d b d p k e d l y a m l l n p  
f t h f g h a b w h d f m t h f t f  
g l b d T h w d p k e p b b l y n t o l y  
p d t h f g l l y l t l n t b e d  
t h i m g r t t t h p d o t h s o t h p d f  
t h i d t t d I t n t k w n w t h  
m n b d t h l o c l f l g h t l g d t e



Fg 24 F g t h e c d t i f t e d  
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m g a t r g l a r l y r r y p o r e s f p l n t p a t h o  
g e n s a n d d m t h m e f f e c t l y l i t i t e e m  
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Dissemination by man M l l e e r e s p o  
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t b e l m f c t w r l d g u l t r f r m n y  
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t t h a l g e t f t h d e a m l l u t i t h e  
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n g r e d m a d f p l n t d e a e y l m  
f u s d a s s C o m m a l g o w s f p t t e s  
n t h t e r n U t e d S t e u a l l y o i t t h  
t k o f e d p l a t a g t b r f m t h e t h r n  
t e s c t f l y b u e o f t h d f i c l i t y f p o d  
n v s f r e m d t o c k i t h e S o u t h B f r  
m y y e r s t h q a l t y f e d p t t g w  
t h N t h w e r t s m l o t w h e i l y n  
f t e d w t h o m e u s d r e s t h t g e t l  
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p t t a p c t a d t u b e r s t e s t d i n t h  
g h d g t h w t t r t h t d  
t t a b l u l d e d t h e d t o c k S o m  
v r u e s h s p a t u X p d u  
t m m e a r t e s d m y b a r r e d l o n e  
t h w t h u d t i S h v r w h p a d

epidemics requires (1) abundant viable inoculum of a virulent physiologic race of the pathogen disseminated widely and rapidly at the proper times (2) dense and extensive populations of a susceptible host in a receptive stage of development and (3) optimal conditions of the environmental factors affecting production and germination of inoculum penetration of the host by the pathogen and rapidity of disease development. Generally epidemics develop from successive cycles of dissemination inoculation infection growth and multiplication of the pathogen as all requirements rarely are fulfilled simultaneously.

These interrelations were illustrated by the progression of an artificially induced epidemic of black stem rust in a field of Marquis wheat at St. Paul, Minn. in 1956 (see Fig. 23). The epidemic was initiated by inoculation with urediospores (summer spores) carried in oil. Inoculations of the wheat June 13 and 15 resulted in an initial incidence on June 23 of 15 to 20 pustules per stem which was sufficient for abundant dissemination and inoculation of the wheat for favorable infection periods associated with heavy rain June 25 and lighter precipitation June 30 and July 1. Pustules from secondary infections were maturing by July 4 and an epidemic developed rapidly resulting in completely diseased wheat within the following two weeks.

[JBR]

#### DISSEMINATION OF PLANT PATHOGENS

Effective dissemination of pathogens requires that the inoculum be carried in viable condition to host plants that are susceptible to infection and that the conditions at the time favor germination of the inoculum and infection of the host plants. Knowledge of the means of dissemination of a given

pathogen often is basic to control of the disease as it causes.

**Dissemination by wind.** Spores are discharged into the air or picked up by even the lightest of air currents and carried by chance to susceptible hosts sometime only to nearby plants sometimes for hundreds of miles.

**Local dissemination.** The conidia (pores) or sporangia of many of the downy mildew fungi are produced only at night or during periods of fog or drizzly weather. They are very sensitive to drying and to sunlight and usually can be effectively disseminated for only short distances. A single maize plant infected with *Sclerospora philippinensis* is estimated to produce from 1 000 000 000 to more than 5 000 000 000 spores of the fungus in a wet night. Given a succession of nights favorable for production spread and infection local epidemics of this and similar diseases can build up rapidly.

The fungus *Cronartium ribicola* which causes white pine blister rust can spread from wild currant plants (*Ribes*) to pines only by means of basidiospores which are small delicate and short-lived. The basidiospores from wild currants can not be disseminated effectively more than 900 ft. If a stand of white pines is free from blister rust it is necessary only to eliminate the *Ribes* bushes from the stand and up to 900 ft away to completely protect the pine from blister rust in the future. Many of the most valuable stands of white pines have been protected in this way.

The fungus *Ustilago tritici* which causes loose smut of wheat produces powdery masses of club-shaped mycelia that replace the floral part of infected plants. These spores are produced at the time the noninfected plants in the same field are producing their flower. The wind carries the spores to flowers of adjacent plants and thus spreads infection locally. Although the spores can be carried long distances in viable condition the short flowering period of the host plant ordinarily precludes effective long distance dissemination. The same pattern is followed by a number of other loose smut fungi and the use of smut-free seed which eliminates the inoculum from a given field or area ordinarily is sufficient to protect the crop against the disease.

**Long distance dissemination.** East of the Rocky Mountains a more or less continuous belt of wheat is grown from northern Mexico to central Canada and the wheat matures progressively from south to north. In many years epidemic of stem rust of wheat propagated by repeating urediniferous *Puccinia graminis* stripe wheat in northern Mexico and southern Texas. The pores are carried northward by the wind sometime in the fall and sometime in the spring. In some years the wheat at plant over an area of several hundred thousand square miles. Essentially the same is true of corn in the United States and in India and in part of Russia.

**Dissemination by water.** A number of aquatic fungi are well adapted to spread by plants

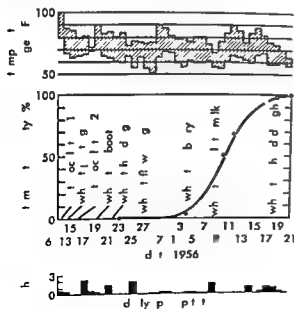


Fig. 23. Development of stem rust on Marquis wheat. (From J. B. R. well, O. J. O. lot of wheat with spores of *Puccinia graminis* a. t. t. c. *Phytopathology* 47(11):689-690 1957)



Fig 25 Adm g d p fwh t f m o m m  
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### Plant disease control

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f o r m p l e t h e c t i n r o o t r t g a n m w h i l  
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n f e r t i l e r a n a e d r i n s a e u c e p t i b i l i t y  
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T I A L T O

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m m n l y r n m u t e d b y n e c t s S I N S E C T I C I D E  
P L A N T I C I D E S

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h a d l n g a d n s t a t s w l e g h t n d a l  
f l w t r i m p t n t f e t D u t a r s p

to other varieties may cause considerable damage. All of the more than 50 known virus diseases of the common potato probably have been spread throughout the world by the shipment of diseased tubers. Similarly virus diseases of stone and citrus fruits probably have been carried to all parts of the world where these crops are grown by shipment of diseased grafting stock. Sometimes these diseases do not produce any obvious symptoms until the trees are several years old. Special techniques are required to insure that grafting stock of material for clonal propagation such as cuttings is free of hidden viruses that may greatly reduce the productivity of the future crop.

**Bacterial diseases.** Ring rot of potatoes caused by *Corynebacterium sepedonicum* is spread chiefly by knives used to cut potatoes into pieces for planting and by contact of cut seed pieces or bruised whole potatoes with sacks, bins or machinery contaminated with the bacteria. This disease was spread throughout the world by the shipment of infected potato tubers. A few infected tubers in a lot of many bushels may furnish sufficient inoculum to infect a large proportion of the seed pieces cut from these tubers, drastically reducing the yield of the crop grown from them. A somewhat similar bacterial disease of geraniums is spread chiefly by knives used to make cuttings for propagation by the resultant contamination of soil pots and other equipment and by the hands and clothing of workers. Constant strict inspection and sanitation are required to keep the diseases in check. Citrus canker caused by *Xanthomonas citri* was introduced from the Orient into Florida about 1910 apparently on diseased planting stock and threatened to destroy the entire citrus industry there. It finally was eliminated by eradicating some 15,000 trees at a drastic cost but necessary measure.

**Fungus diseases.** Late blight of potatoes was carried from South America to and throughout Europe by the transport of diseased potato tubers and later it was carried from Europe to North America. Both powdery and downy mildews of grapes endemic on wild grapes in America were carried by man to France on grape stocks imported to obtain new varieties. They quickly spread over Europe for a time threatened the survival of the extensive grape and wine industries and still add greatly to the cost of production.

White pine blister rust, native to Siberia, was carried into Europe on pines imported for growing in botanical gardens. About 1900 this disease was carried to the United States from Europe on infected seedling pines and now is found throughout the major white pine regions of North America. The Dutch elm disease was introduced into the United States from Europe about 1930. It has spread as far west as Wisconsin and has almost eliminated street plantings of elm in many eastern cities. A somewhat unusual cause of plant disease being spread by man is that of a disfiguring and sometimes fatal canker of sycamore caused by a

species of *Ceratostomella*. This fungus was found to be spread almost entirely by means of porous wood dressing applied to the wood exposed when branches were cut off. The wood dressing was supposed to be fungicidal but actually served as an effective carrier of the inoculum of this fungus.

**Nematode diseases.** Although the evidence is largely circumstantial, it is likely that one of the most destructive plant parasitic nematodes has been imported into the United States in contaminated plant materials.

## PLANT DISEASES IN STORAGE

Tubers, fruits and fresh vegetables are subject to spoilage by a variety of pathogenic and nonpathogenic agents during storage and transit and often this hazard remains acute up to the time of consumption. Seeds such as those of wheat, corn, barley, soybeans and flax which often are stored in bulk for months or years also are subject to deterioration. At times the losses in transit and storage equal those occurring while the plant is growing. In general storage diseases are divided into those caused by nonpathogenic factors and those caused by living organisms or pathogens.

**Nonpathogenic storage diseases.** Fruits and vegetables in storage suffer from a number of various nonpathogenic or physiological diseases. Typically these show up as discolored spots or are on the surface of or within the affected part, sometimes accompanied by collapse of the tissue, leading to pits on the surface or hollows within. These diseases are caused mainly by an excess of gases such as certain esters or carbon dioxide given off by the fruit or vegetables themselves or by chemicals introduced into the storage rooms. These diseases may be controlled by maintaining proper storage conditions including temperature, humidity and aeration. Fruits, vegetables and seed have abundant microflora and damage beginning from nonpathogenic causes may be increased greatly by subsequent invasion of the tissue by bacteria and fungi able to cause rapid decay.

**Pathogenic storage diseases.** Common fungi such as *Botrytis*, *Penicillium*, *Rhizopus* and *Sclerotinia* invade and rot many fruits and vegetables. Losses up to 25% of a shipment between harvest and consumption are common in fruits such as oranges, apples, peaches, pears and plums and vegetables such as potatoes, sweet potatoes, tomatoes and peppers. Bacteria or a combination of fungi and bacteria often rot stored potatoes and root vegetables. These diseases may be controlled by harvesting only sound disease-free produce, careful handling to prevent bruising, the use of clean containers, maintenance of low (about 40°F) temperature in transit and storage and at times the use of fungicide.

Grains stored in bulk are subject to infection by a number of fungi, principally those in the genus *Aspergillus* (Fig. 2b), which have the ability to grow at moisture contents in equilibrium with the

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Fig 1 Chemical control of potato late blight Toluca Valley Me co (Rockefeller Foundation)

cially important in the treatment of seed prior to planting or for the control of seedling blight and rot. Soaks and dips are solutions or suspensions of toxic compounds in which roots, corms, bulbs and other vegetative plant parts are dipped for varying periods of time for disinfestation or for the control of specific diseases. Slurries are liquid seed treatments consisting of a milky suspension of chemical dusts in water.

**Internal plant protection** This includes the correction of physiologic diseases arising from deficiencies of essential nutrient elements in crop soils and the use of systemic (internal) fungicides and bactericides. Deficiency symptoms indicate the lack of major or minor nutrient such as nitrogen phosphorus potassium sulfur boron iron manganese zinc copper and molybdenum. Deficiencies in major elements are readily corrected by the application of commercial fertilizers and in microelements by the application of appropriate compounds to the soil as foliar sprays or more rarely by direct injection into plants.

The concept of systemic plant protection is based on evidence that certain organic compounds are absorbed in minute quantities by crop plants, and either serve as protective substances against infection or stimulate living host cells to produce compounds which resist the attack of pathogenic microorganisms. It is hoped that certain of these materials may prove effective against the attack of fungi, bacteria, and perhaps viruses which are difficult to control by conventional methods. In fact, there is encouraging evidence that it may be possible to control stem rust of wheat, apple scab and bean blight with systemic compounds.

The more common crop protectants include inorganic and organic compounds of sulfur, copper, chlorine, mercury, zinc, nickel, cobalt, and the quinones and phenols (see PHTHOL, QUINONE). Those that appear to have systemic effect include salts of heavy metals such as iron, mercury, zinc, and lead, the sulfamate, alkylic and picric acid esters, carbamates, certain fumigants such as methyl bromide and the herbicide 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T (see FUMIGANT, HERBICIDE). A number of antitumor substances extracted from microorganisms have been shown to act as systemic protectants (see ANTIBIOTIC). Examples are Actin E, streptomycin, and streptomycin D.

gocin from a species of *Bacillus* and viridin from the fungus *Trichoderma* (Fig. 2)

**Weed control** Because weeds are plant pests to the extent that they compete with crop plants and serve as reservoirs of plant pathogens and hosts of insect vectors (carriers) the plant pathologist includes weed control in the general area of plant protection. For the chemical control of weed, complex compounds known in the trade by such names as 2,4-D, 2,4,5-T, TCA, IPC and 2,4-DB are used. Some herbicides are toxic to the weed treated, whereas the selective herbicides are primarily growth promoting substances which over stimulate living tissues and ultimately cause their death.

**Disease resistance** Growing resistant varieties of crop plants is the best and most economical way of combating plant diseases. No capital labor or time need be expended in applying protective fungicides if the crop varieties grown can resist the ravages of disease.

pathogen often escape disease infection and damage merely because they mature early or because of their growth habit. For example certain wheat usually escape rust because they ripen early. Bush type beans are less frequently attacked by the white mold *Sclerotinia* than are the vine type

Better understanding of the specificity of resistance comes as more is learned about parasitic and disease processes, physical factors and mechanisms, chemical components and combinations, enzyme systems and energy exchange. Even without full understanding much has been done in utilizing and combining the kinds of resistance and in understanding the inheritance of resistance investigating its variability and practical testing for its dependability.

**Heritable resistance** A true natural resistance that is inherited by an organism. It is determined by a single gene or sometimes by many genes. Resistance is based on structural, physiological, or biochemical properties, metabolic activities, and physiological functions of a variety of organisms. It may vary qualitatively with external environmental factors. Usually it is effective against a specific pathogen but may not be against all pathogens. Immunity conferring cor-



Fig 2 C trol of d w y mld w flm bea  
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**Wild and cultivated plants** Wild plant species that have undergone natural selection frequently have more disease resistance than do cultivated plants especially if there has been long association of the plants with the disease organisms. *Solanum demissum* a wild potato with small tubers is more resistant to late blight disease than are the cultivated varieties of *S. tuberosum* and many other species of *Solanum* growing throughout the highlands of South America are being investigated as sources of resistance to late blight or some other diseases. The small fruited wild tomato *Lycopersicon pimpinellifolium* has more resistance to a number of diseases such as bacterial wilt, fusarium wilt, verticillium wilt, bacterial canker, gray leaf spot, leaf mold and the spotted wilt virus than has the cultivated tomato *L. esculentum*. Sometimes by selection and by hybridization the disease resistance of a wild plant can be incorporated into varieties suitable for cultivation.

Cultivated crops sometimes are heterogeneous populations from which resistant individuals can be selected and propagated. The implication of survivors in a plant population subjected to repeated severe attacks of such soil-infecting pathogens as *Fusarium* or *Verticillium* has been one means of obtaining varieties of cabbage, cotton, flax, melon and tomato which are resistant to various wilt diseases. Growing flax year after year in a soil plot infested with all available and known strains of the fusarial flax wilt fungus propagating from the survivors and again growing the progeny in the infested soil eliminates the wilt susceptible portions of the population. By persistent selection of this kind flax wilt has been controlled in the United States for about 50 years.

By hybridization many resistant varieties have been produced in wheat, oat, barley, cotton, flax, potato, tomato, bean, cabbage, melon, cucumber, sugar cane, sugar beet, tobacco and many other crops. Simple and complex crosses, polyploid species crosses and backcrosses have been made and monogenic lines have been produced in some instances. If genetic characters for disease resistance are available they can often be combined with many other desirable characters in spite of difficulties encountered because of lack of synchronized flowering in the material, pollen sterility and linkages. The search for resistant materials may cover wide territory. For example, sugar canes from Java and India supplied the monogenic resistance that was needed for cane in the United States and wheats from Australia and Kenya furnished resistance to race 15B of stem rust for many new wheat hybrids in the United States. Canada and Mexico New source of resistance are continually being sought in the varieties and genetic lines available in world collections of various crop plants.

In times past when the menace has threatened destruction of certain crop and discontinued if their cultivation; resistant varieties have made possible their continued production. Today the aim is greater freedom by planning adequate testing of

resistant varieties by having various kinds of resistance at hand and available and by facilitating rapid replacements or recombination of crop material. (H.B.C.)

**Eradication campaigns** These are designed either to eliminate recently introduced pathogens completely or to protect economic plants by destroying alternate or weed hosts. Success in eliminating pathogens depends on early detection of the pathogen and on the efficiency of eradication measures.

Attempts made in the United States to eradicate chestnut blight and the Dutch elm disease were unsuccessful. The citrus canker disease has never been eliminated from Florida by burning infected trees. Flag smut of wheat which was introduced into Mexico was almost completely burned out. Similarly persistent eradication of infected plants has helped restrict many diseases. See FERT (TREE) DISEASES.

Certain rusts can be controlled wholly or partly by eradicating alternate hosts. For example the destruction of red cedars near apple orchards protects apples against the *Gymnosporangium* rust because this rust cannot maintain itself on either host alone. To help control stem rust of wheat and other small grains the growing of barberries, *Berberis* spp. has been prohibited by law in countries. Denmark began a successful campaign against barberries in 1904 and in the United States about 500,000,000 barberries have been destroyed since 1918 with substantial reduction of the stem rust menace (Fig. 3 and 4). Like it is in the United States white pines and other susceptible species are partly protected from blight by eradicating nearby currants and gooseberries, *Ribes* spp.

Like legal public health measures for human beings and for domestic animals, those for plants are essential in keeping many diseases in check. (E.C.S.)

**Quarantines** Plant disease quarantine are legal measures taken by Federal or state government to prevent the introduction of foreign plant diseases or pests into an area. Quarantines are based on the philosophy that government has the right and ob-

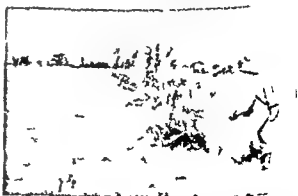
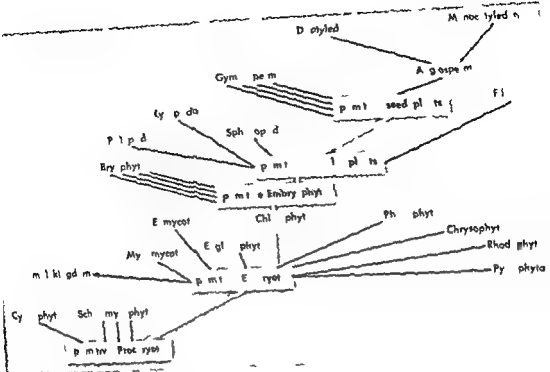


Fig. 3. Home typographical press used for the publication of the barberry plant. This process is much faster and less costly than the old method. (USDA)



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ternal surface area as their total volume in reaction whereas animals function better if their body is compact and their increase in volume is accompanied by a corresponding increase in surface area of internal organs. Hence animals require a carefully integrated and centralized circulatory system while plants need only a relatively loosely organized decentralized system of tissue for conducting food and water.

The compact body of animals requires an integrated pattern of development known as the closed system of growth in which all tissues and organs pass almost simultaneously through stages of embryonal primordia, youth, maturity and old age. The less integrated organization of plants is produced by the open system of growth in which the leaves, branches and flowers are produced serially, by specialized embryonic tissues or meristems, so that embryonic, youthful, mature and senescent stages may exist simultaneously in different organs of the same individual and the same type of organ may be produced repeatedly over an indefinite period of time. The developmental cycle of any particular organ in plants is shorter, less complex and less well integrated with other organs than in animals. Consequently plant organs can be modified much more profoundly by both environmental and genetic effects than an animal structure without producing inviability.

Because of their general lack of motility, plants have evolved special devices for the dissemination of propagules such as pores and seeds (see POLLINATION, DISPERSAL). In addition, the flowering plant has evolved elaborate structures which promote cross-pollination through the aid of animals. Together with the structures which protect the pore and seed, the progressive elaboration of the method of cross-pollination and dispersal of pore and seed forms the principal thread around which the evolution of land plants is centered. A secondary thread is formed by the cellular system which serves for conduction and support. On the other hand, the modification of the outward form of leaves and stems as well as of the inner physiological condition of their cells which adapt plants to different habitats and modes of life are of such a general nature that they are repeated in an almost parallel fashion many times in unrelated groups of plants. They are consequently much less reliable as guides for the pathway of evolution than are corresponding maintenance structures in animals.

In addition to the distinct condition (that is, individual distinctness) of sex—male and female—is far less widespread in plants than in animals. In some plants, such as the monocots, type (having individuals both male and female) has been derived secondarily from dioecious ancestors.

All of the aforementioned characteristics of plants have facilitated evolution through recombination of genetic characteristics during reciprocal adaptation to very different habitats and different adaptive values. Heterization between individual species and particularly between plants and the hybrid derivatives are often significant

and well adapted to new habitats. They can become stabilized in three different ways by combination of relatively homozygous inbred types by introgression and by polyploidy. The majority of species of higher plants have probably evolved at least in part by one of the processes.

**Evolutionary history.** The evolutionary history of the plant kingdom is outlined in the diagram (see illustration). Five levels of advancement are recognized, each based upon an adaptive system offering new opportunities for adaptive radiation. Each level was first reached by a group of generalized or primitive characteristics. The adaptive radiation then generalized among genera in each case to a number of evolutionary lines or phyla, the modern representative of which are very different from each other.

The lowest stage is the Prokaryota or organisms with a primitive type of nucleus lacking a clearly defined membrane; their genes are organized into aggregate, less sharply defined and less highly integrated than the chromosome of higher organisms; their nuclear division is less complex than the typical mitosis. Sexual reproduction when present involves a minimum of morphologically perceptible structure. Differentiation is confined to the formation of resting cells or spores. The primitive Prokaryota gave rise to the Cyanophyta or blue-green algae and to various lines of the Schizomycophyta or bacteria (see SCHIZOMYCETES). Fossil green algae have been found in rock 1,000,000,000 years old.

The primitive Eucaryota or organisms with well defined nuclear membrane, chromosomes and mitotic cell division were unicellular. Their modern counterparts are flagellate organisms which are classified either as algae or as protozoa. They gave rise to eight different phyla of plants, most of the primarily aquatic which differ from each other chiefly in their method of synthesis and absorption of food. The autotrophic phyla which collectively are termed algae have developed different pigments associated with their chlorophyll. The pigments enable them to absorb and use for photosynthesis light of wavelengths characteristic of each phylum. The heterotrophic phyla which are saprophytic or parasitic are the Myxomycota or the Eumycota or fungi. Certain Phaeophyta or brown algae and the most advanced bacteria, etc. or myxobacteria among the fungi have evolved well differentiated tissues, though they are less elaborately than are those of most Eumycophyta. The most common life cycle in primitive Eucaryota is the haploid type in which meiosis immediately follows fertilization and zygote formation. Sixty-eight life cycles are left known in the diagram (Chlorophyta) and the Eucalytes (Phaeophyta). Certain Rhodophyta, Phaeophyta and Chlorophyta possess an alternation of two morphologically similar generations—a haploid gametophyte and a diploid sporophyte.

The next stage of development reached by certain representatives of the Chlorophyta in the form of the red algae (Rhodophyta) and the brown algae (Phaeophyta) is the



years of their existence angiosperms may have grown on mountain tops or hill slopes where preservation as fossils is difficult or impossible See PALEOBOTANY

The ancestors of the angiosperms may have belonged to the extinct pteridosperms or seed ferns. Anatomical evidence suggests that the most primitive angiosperms were trees or shrubs but evidence from both fossil and the morphology of living forms indicates that herbs related to the waterlilies (Nymphaeaceae) and buttercups (Ranunculaceae) appeared very early in angiosperm evolution. Dicotyledons are in many respects more primitive than monocotyledons but evidence such as the occurrence in Triassic strata of fossil leaves which may be palms indicates that monocotyledons diverged from the primitive angiosperm stock at the beginning of its evolution and evolved simultaneously with dicotyledons. See BRYOPHYTES, CHLOROPHYTES, CYANOPHYTES, EMBRYOPHYTES, EVOLUTION, ORGANIC, GYMNOSPERMAE, LIFE ORIGIN OF PLANT KINGDOM, POLYPOIDITY, PROTOZOA, PTERIDOPHYTES, SPECIATION, THALLOPHYTES, TRACHEOPHYTES [C.L.S.]

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## Plant facilities

The physical properties owned and used by industry constitute the plant facilities. These include land and site improvements such as roads, rail extensions, parking lots, and fencing; buildings such as factory, warehouse, office areas, other structures such as docks, liquid storage tanks, incinerators, and gas generating systems; and machinery and equipment used to produce or condition the products of the plant or to support the producing (or conditioning) processes.

**Location.** An industrial plant is often located merely by preference of one or a few owners of the business. Large companies make a detailed study before deciding on locations for new plants. The decision is based on many factors, most of them are economic and relate to the costs of transportation (for incoming materials and outgoing product) of material, of labor, of taxes. Many industries depend directly upon their source of raw materials and the market area for their product. Other industries consider first the availability of site features like space, freedom from adjacent dirt and fumes, trained labor supply, water and utilities. Another factor is community climate or the attitude of the people and their leaders.

A thorough plant location study includes evaluating the availability, utility, and long range cost of land, site, raw material, power, fuel, water, utilities, market area, transportation facilities, labor supply, community conditions, taxes, pollution, value, law, regulation, and external hazards.

**Plant layout.** The layout of an industrial plant embraces the arrangements and orientation of the physical facilities including storage features and supporting services used by the company in the production of its products. Planning a new or rearranged layout involves four basic phases.

1. Determining the location of the area to be laid out is not necessarily a plant location problem. More often it is one of analyzing whether the new department or expansion should go on the north side on the third floor or in a separate building.

2. Establishing the general overall layout involves relating the major activities or departments to each other and allocating the necessary area to each. At this phase major features of the producing machinery, material handling equipment, utilities, and the building itself should be incorporated.

3. Planning the detailed layout includes the locating and orienting of each machine, working operator, material in process container, and supporting service.

4. Installing the layout plan involves coaching or training personnel in the procedures and methods on which the proper functioning of the layout has been planned and moving, placing and hooking up the machinery and equipment.

The four phases fall in chronological sequence but always overlap each other. Also these four phases make logical check points or organizational divisions for the supervisor of plant layout work.

Effective layouts are based on flow of material to allow sequential movement of the material being produced or conditioned. As a result determining the flow is the heart of most layout projects. As the number and diversity of parts or products increase, the complexity of flow analysis grows and the methods of analysis change.

Diagramming the flow and then assigning to the diagram (or diagrams) the space required by the activities are steps that follow determining the flow. The next steps lead to a physical arrangement of space. Integration of supporting services with the flow pattern and modification of the arrangement in accordance with practical limitations of the handling and storage facilities, machine utilization, building features, flexibility, opportunity for expansion, and personnel needs and conveniences lead to the desired layout. Alternative plans are usually developed. By comparative evaluation the most effective is selected.

Layouts are most readily visualized by making a three-dimensional model of the proposed plan. But this is not always necessary. Two-dimensional scale template representing the space—and the individual piece of machinery and equipment in detail layout—are always practical. With modern plan material many different layout plans can be made and reproduced with a minimum of draftsmanship and drawing time.

Classical plant layout centers about either the product or process, when forming or treating the material is involved. Layout by product arrangement facilitates required functions of the product.

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# Plant geography

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 t l y t a l l t h d d a l f a n y m j c i  
 w i t h i n a l c a l t v

Y g t a o s a t m i p p l a r o r g n a n d r e l e r  
 t h e m a s o f p l n t l i f e t h a t f m t h e n a t u r a l  
 m n a t u r a l i n d e p Th e g e t i s f a r g i n  
 i s t h t e t y o r c a r p t f p l a t i f d e l s d l v  
 d f e r n t l a n d a y i n g o m n t i n a d g r o w t h  
 f t h e u m o l e m n t s o f t h a l f l r a T h  
 n c a l l y t m r g a z e d a d i g r t e d w h l e t  
 a h i g h e r l e l f n t e g a t i n t h n t h p r a t e p  
 c i m g e d o f t h o e s p e c i e s a n d t h e r p o p u l a  
 t o S o m t i m e s g e t e y w e k l y i n t  
 g r t e d s t h p e e p l a t f a n a l a n d e d f i l d  
 S o m t i m e s t h h i g h l y s t g a t d s n t h e t r o p i c a l  
 a n t r t v e g e t i s p e m r g e n t p r p r  
 t i e n t e a l y f n l t h s e c t t h m e l e  
 f r e d t b y a b l g t a t y p o f o  
 g n m a d f r t d m i l u t e r m t h n  
 t h g n m f b l g t

Floristic plant geography Th b m p o n n t s  
 f a y f l a e t h e k n d f p l a t c m p o n g t  
 m m n l y r i r r e d t a s p e c i e s The p e c i e s c a  
 b e g r u p e d t o a r u s k n d f i r s t e l e m t  
 w h h a e n m u t u a l l y e x i e F r e a m p l a  
 g e t e l e m e t h s a m m o n e v o l t o r y i g n  
 m g a t i n e l e m e n t h a a c m m n u t e o f n t r y  
 n t o t h e t u o y a h i s t o r a l e l e m t s d i t c t  
 t r m f m e p t e n t a d a n l g i c a l l e m  
 m a t a l a t e d t a e n m e n t a l p f e  
 A l n s e c p d v r y w i d e f e d l e a e  
 g v e n p e c a l t e m n t A n e d e m c p e r  
 t r t d t a r a s l l y m a l l a d o f m p  
 l n t t S P O P U L T O V D I S E R S A L

Th i d e f a a t f u n d m n t a l t h e i n e  
 n d t e l f t h l y e c t f a t e a l e d t n  
 a l l e d g a l h y A r t h n t r e g n f  
 d s t b u t o n u e e l a n y p e l e m e t  
 e n e n t e f l The l o l d t b t n w t h  
 t h r a w h l a t a t f w a m p h u b s  
 t h t p o p h y f t h t a e a A r a f t e r t  
 i g d t h g n r l n d h a p t h e n a  
 t r f t h m g n h t h t h e y  
 d s y t a n d m t h s e l a t n h p t t h  
 a a G o p f a a e u i e t t p l e n t r e  
 w h e t h o y t o n e r a l g g r p h  
 a l l y d s t t A e f l c l e l r e l a t d  
 p l t s t h t m u t u a l l y f i e d t h  
 a u A l t a i e r v g l m  
 l n d m t e o c u n e



the remainder of the energy is transferred to the organic compound resulting from the fermentation. Of the energy released approximately 44% is in forms available for cellular work and the remainder is degraded to heat. See CARBOHYDRATE METABOLISM.

**Products of fermentation** The products of fermentation vary with the organism but in higher plants the usual products are ethyl alcohol and carbon dioxide. In some cases small amounts of lactic acid are produced and other organic compounds of uncertain structure may be formed for example in potato tubers.

Certain incomplete oxidations such as the oxidation of ethyl alcohol to acetic acid by *Acetobacter pasteurianus* or of sucrose to citric acid by *Aspergillus niger* are called fermentations in industry. However because these processes are strictly dependent upon molecular oxygen they are not fermentations. See INDUSTRIAL MICROBIOLOGY.

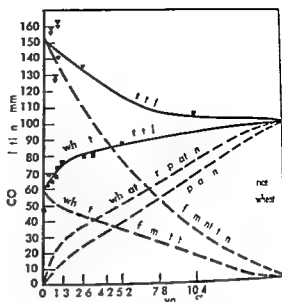
Fermentative capacity is widespread and is known in many lower plants including yeast, certain fungi and algae and in most higher plants and animals. In higher plants fermentation often occurs in high velocity in embryonic structures such as seeds, seedlings, young roots and shoots. The velocity often decreases during development and may cease entirely in mature stems and leaves of certain plants. The occurrence and rate of fermentation are illustrated in the table.

**Effect of oxygen on fermentation** The partial pressure of oxygen has a marked effect on fermentation. Except in a few obligate anaerobic bacteria fermentation ceases when the oxygen pressure in the cells exceeds values of 3–10 mm Hg. The suppression of fermentation by oxygen is known as the Pasteur effect. The external pressure of oxygen that just inhibits fermentation known as the critical point is illustrated. This pressure is considerably higher than the internal pressure and is often 20–40 mm Hg in range. When rice or other seeds germinate under water the tissues may lack oxygen and fermentation results. If the intercellular space becomes injected with water the cells often become deficient in oxygen with a resulting fermentation. This is due to the fact that oxygen diffuses 300 000 times as rapidly in air as in water or tissue.

**Forms of fermentation** Two forms of fermentation are illustrated in Eqs (1) and (2) and mixed

Occurrence and rate of fermentation in barley seeds and roots

Plant	Rate $\mu\text{l CO}_2$ / (g wt (h))	Alcohol $\text{CO}_2$
Barley		
Seedlings 6 h old	83	
Seedlings 4 d old	31	
Seedlings 3 d old	51	0.33
Seedlings 90 h	8	0.7
Barley		
Seedlings 4 d old	1	0.98
Roots	80	1.01



The effect of oxygen tension on the rate of  $\text{CO}_2$  by wheat seedlings and the effect of  $\text{CO}_2$  on the rate of  $\text{CO}_2$  and fermentation.  $\text{CO}_2$  is shown (D. L. Taylor, *Am. J. Bot.* 29(9) 721–738, 1942).

reactions of alcoholic and lactic fermentations occur. Equation (3) shows that the lactic acid may be neutralized by the buffers of the cell.



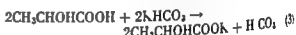
Glucose Ethyl alcohol

$$\Delta F = -51.4 \text{ kcal}$$



Lactic acid

$$\Delta F = -45.8 \text{ kcal}$$



$$\Delta F = -1.95 \text{ kcal}$$

Inpection of Eq. (1) shows that alcohol is more highly reduced than sugar whereas the carbon dioxide is more highly oxidized. Equation (2) shows that the methyl group of lactic acid is more reduced and the carboxyl group is more oxidized than the sugar. Therefore fermentation has been known as an intramolecular oxidation-reduction. Further, Eq. (1) shows that the ratio of carbon dioxide to alcohol should be unity and although this value is often attained deviations from it are common. As a result of nonfermentative carbon dioxide produced from the decarboxylation of organic acids (keto acids) or of the liberation of carbon dioxide from bicarbonates by acid of fermentation or as a result of mixed fermentation with other reduced compound in addition to or in place of ethyl alcohol.

**Materials used in fermentation** Fermentation may occur at the expense of starch, glycogen or any of several sugars. It is an enzymatic process depending upon a variety of many enzymes and ever enzyme. The

st ll d zyma Ne ly ll the enzym s nd  
zym q ed f r al h lie ferm ntati n l a e  
n when id t h d fr m e t a t of h her pl y s  
(pea b a s ma b and wheat emb y s)  
Frm t t m b ed t n ell fr e a d  
e n e tr ted pla t e t a t p i c l r i f i l e  
t i s a r f r i t i d w i t h g l o e m r g a n i c p l o u  
p h t n d t h m z y m s e a l x y l d i p h o s  
p h y d n e n u c l e t d e n d n n e t i p h a t e  
S C o e z y i f F n z y m e

Role of fermentation Th phy olog al r le f  
f n t a t i n a h h r plant s t l l n e t a n  
m p n d m e A m i a p l n t p l o g t  
h l l d e r m n t a t n h h r p l i s a a e r b  
t p t n r n t m i c f e i a l l n f f w r  
t h e m s a d s a p p e r n g f m A r t h  
A m e a R e a t m l a t i f e r m n t a t n a r e  
i m p r t t h t a l t a g f p l t e p r t i n  
(e P L A S T R E P I R A T I O N ) F r m n t t m y i p  
p l v a l a b i f m s o f e g d g g m n t o  
f s e e d r m p l a t p a t f i t a t e d w i t h w a t r  
W i t h t h e p l o f a f w h g h p l i s f  
x m p l e ( O y a e t m ) a l l g r w i t h c e a e  
t l w o x y g e p r e s b u t f e m t i n m a v  
t l p p l y e n r g y m a t e o f t e d y t a i t e  
n d s y t h e n t a l f r a t a l A o l  
b i d y e t r y g w n t h b e f a r  
F e r m e n t a t i c P l a n t M e t a b o l i s Y f a s t  
{ p r e }

B b l g p h y J B n P l t B h m i t y  
190 W O J m e s P l t R p t n 1953  
F C S t w d ( d ) P l t P h y l o g y l a l d  
2.1959

## Plant geography

T h e m j u b d n o f b t a y n e d w i t h  
H p e t f i t h e s p a t j d t l t f i l t  
T h n a l b o w a p h y t g g p h y p h y  
t l o g y g e a p h l b t a y B y t a d t n  
t i n o l m e s t t h e d t b t f  
p l n t n t m r h t r a l p l n t g e o g r a p h y  
l e e l a d p l e o b o t y j t h z o a l d o  
l p m t p l t g g p h y h b n t m t e l y  
n e d w i t h t h i f o f t e l g y a d  
g n t e I t t t t t l y g r t e d f m  
l g v f o m d d q l l y g l a l  
p r t p l t g e p h m j t d f t h  
n f g o g p h y l t h g h b y t m f e w g e  
g a p h d a l m a n l w i t p l t T h w d g o  
b i a u d b l t m l g v l y i n g  
t m b u e f u m o a d t r d t

The f t p l m g g p h y t d t h  
b r v d e m p l f a t o f p l t d t r b t n d  
l t d t d n d t p e t t h f t  
W h n b l t h e t u d y l d t h e p d t n  
d i t d t l u t l p f n m p o l l y  
t h e l t t p l t p r t t h t o d  
t o d p r a d f i b l p a d g t t n  
t y p c h i p t l l e c t e p t t t t h  
f i d f f e s t v t l t g d p a t  
m p m n t w i d l i h a l t t m a g e m t h r t  
c u l t d l a l t n r a t P l t g e  
p h y e a c h u t r m t a l

a d m g e n e r a l d o s n o t l e l a l t o r y p o e  
d u r e s n d t e l l g e a l i s p e n t

Flora and vegetation There are two m a y r u l  
d f p l a t g e o g r a p h y p n l l e n g o n l g e a l  
l e k d w a o f b o t a n y n e l l F l t t y p l a n t g e g r a  
p l y m b r a c e s t h e s p a t i a l d i t r b u t m o f t h e f l a  
w h i l e e g e t a t a l p l n t g e o g r a p h y s t h e p a t i a l  
d i t r i t u t i o f t h e v e g t a t A c l e a r u n d e r t a n d  
i n g i t h e t w t e r m s e e n t i a l

F l r a i n a c e n t i f i c t e r m w i t h n o c m m o n u s a g e  
T h e f l r a f a r e a p e r i o d o f t i m e i t h e t o t a l  
t y o f a l l t h e p e s w i t h i n t h e g e o g r a p h i c a l  
u n i t d p e n d t t h e i r r e l a t i o n a l n d a c a d  
t h e i r r e l a t i o n h p t e a c h t h e r T h t e f o r a l  
t r m p o p l i t i n i n t h e c o n n e c t n r e f a o l l  
t u l y t l l t h i d i d u l f a y n e p e c i e s  
w i t h i n a l c l u s t e r

V g t a t o n t t r m f p p u l a r o r g a n a n d r e f r  
t o t h e m a s o f p l t l i s t h a t f r m t h n a t u r a l  
m a t u r l l a n d c a p e T h e m i t n o f a r g m  
s t h t p e t r y r a r p e t o f p l a t i f d e v e l p l l y  
d i f f e r t a l a d a r y i n g e m b i n t i n n d g o l l  
f t h e m e r u s e l l e r i e t y o f t h e l i f l r T h c h  
i a l l y t a n r g a n e d a n d i t e g a t e d w h l e a l  
h i g h e r l e l o f i n g t i n t h a t h e e p a r a t e p e  
c i s m p r e d o f t h m p s a n d t h e i r p o p u l  
t i n S o m e t i m e g e t a t n s v e r y w a k l y i n t e  
g r a t e d t h e p n e r p l a t f n a b d d f l d  
S o m e t i m e u n h i g h l y t e a t e d i n t h e t r o p i c a l  
n i t l g t t u n g e e e m e r g e n t p r r  
t n t e r y l f d i n t h p e c t h e m l  
d r i r d t b y n n h o l g u t a s t y p e f r  
g n m d f f t a n d m e s l s i t m t h a n  
t h e o g n m f b l g t

Floristic plant geography T l b a c c o m p o e n t s  
f a y f l o r a e t h k i n d o f p l n t s m p o g s t  
o m m n l y f e r d t a s p e c T h e p e c i e  
b e g u p e d n t a u k d s f f l l i m e n t  
w h i h r e t r i t u a l l y l u i F e e m p l e a  
g e n e r e l e m e n t s a c m m n e o l u t o n a r y i g  
a m g r a t e l e m t h a s o m m n u t e f n i y  
t t h t e r t y a h t r e a l l m t i d i s t n c t  
i n t r m o f m p t e t a n d n o l g a l e l e  
m e t l t e d t n e n m n t i a l p r i n e  
A l e u a p e a f r y w d p a d t c  
g v n p c i l t e m t A a d m p e s e  
t t d t l l y m l l a d o f m e p e  
l n t e t S P O P U L A T I O N D I S P E R S A L

T h d a o f a e a f n d a m e n t a l t h c e  
n d y n s i t h b j c t f a s p e c i l e d e t o n  
l l d g p h y A t h n t u r e r e g n o f  
d t b t c u r e n e f a n y p l e m t  
e v e n n t f l r a T h e l c a l d t h t w i t h  
t h a w h o l e t h a t f w m p h r b j  
t h t o p g p h y f t h t a e A t o f t e r t  
d t o t h g a l e a d h p t h e n  
t f t h m g n w h t h e r t h e y t i s  
d i n t n d n t h l t i t i p t o t l  
G u p s f a e n e t p l y t s  
w h t h e g r a t n t e a e v e l g g a p h  
c l l y d t n t n t A l l e l y l t d  
p l n t t h t a e m t a l l y l u e a d t b  
v i o s A l e t o e r v i g f m n  
a l t d m t n o u n c e

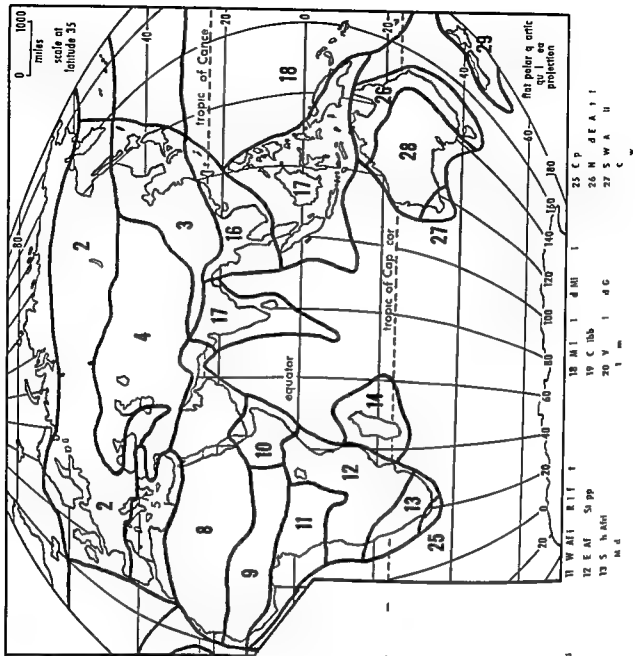


Fig 1 Map of the world showing the distribution of the 29 numbered regions (Modified from R. G. Odell, Geography of Flow, 1953)

1 Atlantic and Subarctic

2 Eastern Subarctic

3 Eastern Subarctic

4 Eastern Subarctic

5 Eastern Subarctic

6 Atlantic and Subarctic

7 Atlantic and Subarctic

8 Atlantic and Subarctic

9 Atlantic and Subarctic

10 Atlantic and Subarctic

11 Atlantic and Subarctic

12 Atlantic and Subarctic

13 Atlantic and Subarctic

14 Atlantic and Subarctic

15 Atlantic and Subarctic

16 Atlantic and Subarctic

17 Atlantic and Subarctic

18 Atlantic and Subarctic

19 Atlantic and Subarctic

20 Atlantic and Subarctic

21 Atlantic and Subarctic

22 Atlantic and Subarctic

23 Atlantic and Subarctic

24 Atlantic and Subarctic

25 Atlantic and Subarctic

26 Atlantic and Subarctic

27 Atlantic and Subarctic

28 Atlantic and Subarctic

29 Atlantic and Subarctic

30 Atlantic and Subarctic

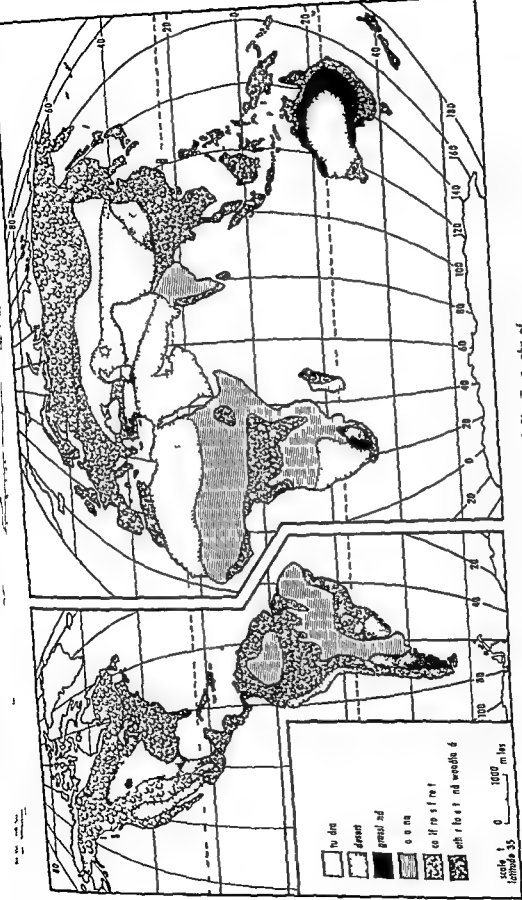


Fig. 2 Map of the world showing the distribution of plant types from 1953

On the basis of areas and their floristic relationships the surface of the earth is divided into floristic regions (Fig 1) each with a distinctive flora

The understanding and interpretation of floras and of their distribution have been predominantly in terms of their history and ecology Historical factor in addition to the evolution of the species themselves include consideration of theories of continental drift land bridges and orographic and climatic changes in geologic time that have affected migrations and perpetuation of floras Ecological factors more amenable to observation and thus unfortunately to post hoc reasoning include the contemporary roles played by precipitation humidity water levels temperature wind soil animals and man See PALEOBOTANY

**Vegetational plant geography** The basic components of the vegetation of any landscape are the plant communities The science of plant communities is known as plant ecology in the American sense also as plant sociology vegetation science and phytocoenology Many definitions of the plant community have been attempted but none has gained universal acceptance In part this problem is inherent in the nature of the community itself which is a natural phenomenon composed of elements the species which themselves usually maintain a high degree of independence Thus the community is often only a relative continuity in nature bounded by a relative discontinuity as judged by competent botanists See COMMUNITY

Vegetational plant geography has emphasized the mapping of so called vegetation regions and the interpretation of these in terms of environmental or ecological influences

There are many aspects of a mosaic of plant communities which could serve to identify a geographic unit of vegetation but that which has been predominant in the literature had its origin in folk knowledge It is the physiognomic distinction between grassland forest and desert with such variants as woodland (open forest) savanna (scattered tree in grassland) and scrubland (dominantly shrubs) Within forest the chief breakdown has been into coniferous evergreen forest broadleaved deciduous forest and broadleaved evergreen forests in the tropics Furthermore the attempt is made to map original virgin vegetation as opposed to coenotypes obviously due to the influence of man (Fig 2) There is increasing dissatisfaction with this approach but no accepted alternatives have arisen Dissatisfaction arises from improved understanding of virgin vegetation frequently found to be influenced by ancient human populations Furthermore the segregation of coniferous from deciduous type is found to separate vegetations closely related in all other aspects such as yellow birch and hemlock in North America and to unite types otherwise unrelated like the pine stands which are found from the tropic to the Tundra edge In addition the distance of grassland may allow the invasion of apparently self-perpetuating woody vegetation or vice versa in a manner that makes a physiognomic classification

less fundamental Unlike floristic botany where evolution provides a single unifying principle for classification the nature of vegetation in its geographical distribution is such that many types of regions and many types of classifications may have equal significance in rationalizing the natural phenomena See VEGETATION ZONES

The interpretation of the distribution of vegetation has been overwhelmingly in terms of the existing average environment Catastrophic factors such as fires hurricanes droughts and other abnormal weather are receiving increasing attention There has been relatively little emphasis on differences due to the genetic nature of the species For example bristle cone pine tree have a life span of 4000 years and Australian eucalypts were absent from Australia by nature amenable to the environmentally similar but treeless California chaparral region From one viewpoint it is the varying genetic demands of the different species upon their environment which permits their segregation into communities The fact that arboreta and botanical gardens are so successful in growing many species outside their normal ranges is being recognized as a reflection of the more extreme environmental tolerance

The uniformitarian environmental interpretation of vegetation regions is the most completely documented Climate is considered of primary importance Numerous empirical formulae combining various features of temperature and moisture have been derived so as to correlate with the distribution of physiognomic vegetation type Soil is recognized as secondary in importance In addition biotic factors including both man and other animals have limiting effects Although analysis of the normal environment is essential to the full understanding of the distribution of vegetation type it is not likely that except for trigger factor direct and immediate cause and effect relationship will be found between vegetation types and the elements of the total environment which man isolates and studies See ECOLOGY HUMAN ECOLOGY PHYSIOLOGICAL TERRESTRIAL ECOSYSTEM see also POSTGLACIAL VEGETATION AND CLIMATE

**Bibliography** S A Cain *Foundations of Plant Geography* 1944 A Engler *Das Pflanzenreich* 1900 A Engler *Die Vegetation der Erde* 1906 R Good *The Geography of Flowering Plants* 1953 E V Wulff *An Introduction to Historical Plant Geography* 1943

## Plant growth

An irrepressible increase in cell number and cell size in plant In contrast growth in an animal is almost wholly the result of increase in cell number Another important difference in growth between plant and animal is that animals are determinate in growth and reach a final size before they are mature and start to reproduce Plant has an indeterminate growth and as long as they live continue to add new organs and tissue In an animal growth of the different parts of the body is more or less simultaneous in plant growth is retarded in the greater

g r n t o r m e t m f e M E R I S T E M A P I C A L  
(M E R I T E L A T R A L) The f e m a n n u m a l  
= t b d y c e l l h a v a b i t t h e a m a g e a n d t h e  
n d i d a l d a s a u n t b u t n a p l a n t n e w c e l l  
a p d u c d a l l t i m a n d m e p r t c h a s  
i e a d f l w e m a y d e w h l t h m a n b d y  
f t h p l t p r t a n d o t i u e t o g r w f l w  
c e r t h b a c p o c f g r o w t h c e l l m u l t p l c a t  
t n r y m u t h e m e i n p l a s a d i m a l  
a d m t o d c l l d v i n w i l l t b c o n d e r e d  
h e r d t l S C E L L D I V I O M I T O S I S

The t l e d u the v a r s p h o m e n a o f  
g t h f l l w e d b y e c t i o n s i n e p r o d u c t e  
g r t h d m n a n d g e m i a t i o p e r d e t y  
n d a b o n a t e a o n l i t m o p e d i c t y

Factors affecting plant growth Th facto  
h c h c o n t i p l n t g r w t h c a n b e e p a t e d i n t o  
t h e e g u p F e t a i t n h e t g e n e t c f a c t s  
t h e g e e c r r e d b y l l e l l w h c h g i e e r y e l l  
t h p o t e t i t y g w a n d w h i c h e r t l t h l i m  
t t i n w h c h e h e l l e i g r a h  
p l s i n d e v l p (a e G E N E T I C S) The c i  
n t l l d l y b y b e d g a d c e t h e g g c e l l  
s t r i d d t h g e t s p o t e n t i e s o f t h e f i t e  
p l a t a f i e d S e R E A O M I C R O V P L A T

The d g r u p o f f t r w h h n t o f p l a t  
g t h t h e t e r n l f t o w e h a t h e i n t e a  
t o b e t e l l t h h o r m n a l t o l v i m  
t h i n a l f d d i t r i b u n a d a l l e c l a t o n  
n g t l T h v w l l b e d c u s d l a r t h s c  
t o n p l a t h r m

The t h i g m f f e t m p r t h e o t  
a d e a l m n t

The b l a e b t the l b l e w t e r n t h e  
l d t h w t r l t h r g h t a n p t i n o n e  
f t h m y r a t y l a t g r o w t h f e P I A T R  
W A T E R R E L A I O S O ) A n t h m a y o n e t h e  
a l b l t y f u t t s (a e P A T J I V E 42 =  
i o o r) T h a f n e t t i t h o n n t r e t n  
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l g p l t d u n l t h m n e d t s  
u d g

l i m p i t t a l h o w m p l t h n t e  
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w l l A t p n t k l e d g a b u t t h e n t r l  
t h i p b t t h l a t n l f g m t a y  
T h p t l t f t h l f i a l t y f n t g t  
m t h e f t l n t d g t h e l t h p t  
m y t n t l f i t n l m e n t d  
t k w t h g t a l l u n f r m p l a t m t i l

Th s i s n w b e n g d o n e i o c l l e d p h y t o t r o n s i n  
w h c h c a n f t h e e n v i r o n m e n t a l f a c t o r c a n l e  
c n t o l l e d e p a t e l y

The a d d i t i o n a l p r o b l e m f t h i r r e g u l a r i t i e s a n d  
u p r d i s i b i l i t y o f t h e c l i m a t e a r m i n d e a l n g  
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g o w t h r e p n e s o f p l a n t t o i n d i d u a l f a c t o r s  
w l l h e d s u e d i n t h i s a r t i c l e

Plant hormones The c e l l i s t h e s m a l l e s t u n t o f  
t h e o r g a n i s m w h c h h a s a l l t h a t t r i b u t e o f l i f e  
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C A L) I t h a b e e n s h o w n t h a t n o t o n l y t h e f r i t h e d  
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l a f T h e r e f o i n t a l l a t l e a s a t i d e a l l e  
m m b r o f c e l l s i t h e b d y f a p l a n t w h n o l a t e d  
a n g i e r i e t o a c o m p l e t e p l a n t H w e r s  
a s l o n g a s t h e c e l l a s i n c o t a c t w i t h t h e r  
n g h b o r g e l l n t h e s t i p l a s t h e y d n o t  
h b u t t h r f l l p t n t a l t i e b u t r m a n o l y a  
p a t o f t h e w h i T h i m e n t h t h e r e i a c n  
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g a n i n t o a c o m p l e t e o r g a n i s m

I t h a b e e n p d i n a m u m b e f c a e s h a t t  
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w h h a t a t r t h i b i t o t h e p a r t s a f t r t h  
c h m i l h a b e n t r a n p o r t d t o t h m s h h m  
i l p d u e d i n m a l l a m u t s n e p a s f t h e  
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I f a c e l l i s c o m p l e t e l y l f f i e n t a n d c n  
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o f a n r g n m V v u i c e l l u l a a l g a e c a n g w  
n t h w a y l t h g h t y m y d v e l o p i n t o i r r e g  
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l e t l y

A n o g m e n i t s w h p r t o f t h e c e l l s h m  
l t t l a l t y s p d u e r t a n t l l u b  
t e c e w h a e t l l p o d d b y t h r c e l l f  
t h s a m e i m T h s i p h a p b i l l u t t d  
t h s i r o o t g w t h

W h n o o t t i p l c m f g c u t f t o m a t  
p l t a d p l a d p t a l l y n m e d u m n t  
i o f 2 c g r o l u t n t w h c h t h e n e e s a r y



mineral salts are added such a root tip will grow only a small amount. But when thiamin in a concentration of 1 part in 100 000 000 is added to the medium growth is rapid. Also tips of the cultured root when cut off and placed in fresh medium will likewise continue to grow. Therefore this medium contains all that is necessary for continued root growth. In the normal plant the salts are supplied by the soil, the sugar by the photosynthesizing leaves, and the thiamin by the younger leaves. See LEAF (BOTANY). PHOTOSYNTHESIS. Thus the roots cannot grow faster than the production of sugar and thiamin in the leaves allows and as a result balanced growth occurs.

In all excised roots investigated addition of thiamin is essential for continued growth. In other roots additional substance such as vitamin B<sub>6</sub> and niacin are also essential (see VITAMIN). Thiamin satisfies the definition of a plant hormone and vitamin B<sub>6</sub> and niacin may also be hormones in such cases as pea roots.

There are many other hormones involved in the growth of a flowering plant. For example if the stem tip is cut off the stem underneath stops growing in length. But when the stem tip is replaced or when auxin, the stem growth hormone, is applied instead of the stem tip, growth of the stem is resumed. The amounts of auxin produced by the stem tip and required for normal growth of the stem itself are infinitesimal (about 10<sup>-6</sup> mg) and this places auxin in the category of hormones. See AUXIN.

**Growth correlations.** A number of the correlations which exist in plants and which are usually influenced by hormones are shown in Fig. 1. Young leaves grow because purines such as adenine are supplied to them by mature leaves. Similarly an unknown growth factor produced by roots is essential for stem growth. It is not known where gibberellin or kinetin (a recently discovered plant hormone) fit into this scheme but it is clear that the growth of the different plant organs is intimately interrelated through the need of some plant parts for substances produced in other parts of the plant (see GIBBERELLIN). Often the substances are simple compounds and may be effective by being prosthetic groups of enzymes, and the latter could not function without such groups. See ENZYME.

In an unexpectedly large number of cases the correlations in plants are produced by one simple substance called auxin which was first discovered as the plant growth hormone which causes elongation of cells. Now another substance has been found, gibberellin, which more spectacularly influences elongation of stems, leaf stalks, and leaves. It is present in plant organs but its role in normal growth has not been established.

Other correlations effected by auxin are (1) control of lateral bud inhibition by the apical bud, (2) prevention of abscission of a leaf petiole or of a peduncle of a flower as long as auxin is produced by the leaf, flower, or fruit, (3) root for-

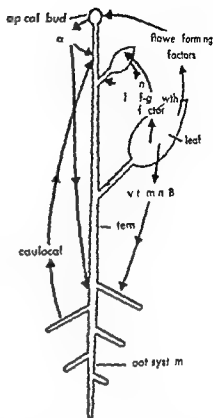


Fig. 1. Schematic drawing of a plant with out system at the old and young leaf and apical bud. Some known growth correlations drawn with broken lines which indicate factors responsible for the correlation. Sugar interrelation not shown (from F. & M. L. ed. *The Cell and Cytoplasm Science Press* 1940).

mation at the basal end of cutting, (4) to use growth and induction of cancerous growth, (5) induction of xylem elements in regenerating vascular bundles, and (6) production of parthenocarpic fruits. See BUD (BOTANY), CANCER (BIOLOGY), FLOWER (BOTANY), FRUIT (BOTANY), VASCULAR BUNDLES.

To explain how auxin can take part in many reactions and can control so many correlations it has been assumed that auxin controls one master reaction in one of each of the above-mentioned processes. This master reaction has been variously assumed to be a change in cellular permeability, a step in cellular respiration, a synthetic process, or a stimulation of translation of other substances, but thus far no such universal master reaction has been found. Researches are still looking for the mechanism of each of the above-mentioned processes.

**Embryonic growth.** After fertilization of the egg cell by one of the sperm produced by the generative nucleus of the pollen tube, the resulting zygote starts to develop. This occurs either immediately after fertilization as in most rapidly developing seed, or after a delay of several months as in the case of pines. See SEED (BOTANY). During the first 5-10 cell divisions an undifferentiated mass of more or less globular tissue is produced within the endosperm. In plants such as those





epidermis the periblem which produce the cortical cells (outside the pericycle) and the pterome which gives rise to all the cells of the center (stele) of the stem from the pericycle inward (see PERICYCLE). All four possible periclinal chimaera between nightshade and tomato have been obtained in extensive grafting experiment. Such periclinal chimaera are also known for hawthorne *Mespilus* *Cytisus* and *Laburnum* and in each case intermediate forms are produced. This means that all cells and tissues influence each other during their stages of growth in that each partakes of the form and size of the other. In general the cells produced by the periblem have the greatest effect on the final shape of leaves and flowers.

Similar periclinal chimaera were produced in *Datura* by colchicine treatment of the growing point (see COLCHICINE). This causes formation of tetraploid cells. When only the dermatogen or periblem or pterome cell of the growing point are tetraploid and the others are normally diploid periclinal chimaeras are formed in which the difference in cell size does not result in distorted plants but give rise to harmonious structure.

Occasionally a growing point enlarges beyond its normal size. This can be stimulated by auxin treatment. It then gives rise to fasciated (flattened malformed) stems with abnormal phyllotaxis (leaf arrangement in the stem).

The stem growing point can be cultured in vitro by placing it on an agar medium containing sugar and salts. It will then develop into a stem with leaves which upon regeneration of root will become a complete plant. Growing point of monocotyledons and ferns (which groups usually do not regenerate easily) are easier to culture than growing points of dicotyledons which have a much greater capacity for regeneration.

In addition to the apical meristem there are the lateral meristems in the plant called the cambium and the cork cambium and the adventitious growing point. About the physiology of the cambium it is known that its activity is under the control of the buds and leaves of the plant. In deciduous trees divisions in the cambium giving rise to phloem and xylem cells start as soon as the bud becomes active in spring (see PHLOEM XYLEM). During the period of bud opening and young leaf expansion the elements of the spring wood are formed. Later the presence of mature leaves causes the cambium to produce summer wood with smaller cells, thicker cell walls and often fewer vessels. This periodicity in cambial activity gives rise to the annual xylem ring in the wood. This is not an autonomous periodicity for when the leaves are removed the cambial activity stops. If in the same year more buds and leaves develop new spring wood is produced followed by summer wood and an extra complete annual ring is formed.

It has been found that auxin application to a stem can stimulate cambial activity in the same way growing buds and young leaves do. Therefore it is likely that the spring wood is formed under the

influence of auxin coming from the buds and young leaves. Actually it has been found that the auxin production of the growing plant part has the same cycle as that of cambial activity. Also in most cases cambial activity starts in the young branches and is followed by cambial growth in the trunk with a time lag which approximates the rate of auxin transport from buds through branches to the stem base.

It has been possible to grow cambium cells in vitro. In most cases however they regenerate undifferentiated callus cells indicating that the stimulus for cambial growth is normally more complex than merely an auxin supply. This is also indicated by the periodic changes in the cell differentiation from the cambium. For example in a rubber tree *Hevea* at intervals of 1-4 months a layer of latex vessels is produced in the phloem alternating with layers of sieve tubes and other phloem elements. Or in the xylem of members of the plant family Sapotaceae layers of wood parenchyma alternate with layers of vessel and fiber. See PARENCHYMA.

## REPRODUCTIVE GROWTH

Reproduction in plants can either be sexual or vegetative (asexual). Some reproduction mechanisms in which sexual reproduction is discarded here.

In plants such as *Ficaria* some lilies or *Hydrachis* many axillary buds will swell and then food in their bud call. The bud may then become detached and behave like seed that when conditions become favorable the bud starts to grow and form new plant. In *Hydrochans* or *Sieranthus* the buds are formed in autumn as a response to the shortening of the day and they germinate only after having been subjected to cold during winter (see PHOTOPERIODISM IN PLANTS). In bulbous plants such as tulip, hyacinth, daffodil and onion reproduction in the vegetative bulb consists of a markedly shortened stem on which thick scale leaves are implanted and which completely developed the stem usually ends in a flower. Toward the end of the year in some axillary buds on the shortened stem develop into new bulb. This causes the clustering of bulbs in the plant. When the scale leaves of the bulbs are halved by cutting off the upper half a large number of adventitious buds may form on the cut surface each one producing a tiny bulb which can grow into another plant.

In a number of plants thickened buds or bulblets are formed in place of flowers. Some plants such as *Polygonum* and *Urtica* reproduce entirely in this way. In other such as *Aegle* only occasionally do flowers fail to develop but the flowers are replaced by vegetative bulblets. The factors causing this transformation are known.

Very peculiar forms of vegetative reproduction exist in the genus *Bryophyllum*. The Madagascarian species *B. tiarissimum* and *B. daigreni* or *hannu* produce under long day conditions adventitious buds in the notches of the petioles of their leaves.



the tobacco *Nicotiana affinis* opens its flowers at sunset and closes them the next day at 9 A.M. The flower movements of the California poppy are induced by the light dark change of the previous day they close 21 hours after the previous sunset. The flowers of the night blooming cactus open 24 hours after darkening on the previous day. Tulip and crocuses open upon a rise in temperature and close again upon cooling. gazania flowers open above 18°C and close below this temperature. These responses to light and temperature are so regular that the time of day or the air temperature can be told fairly accurately by observing which flowers are open or closed. It is actually possible to use flowers as clocks. Carolus Linnaeus the great Swedish botanist planted part of his garden as a flower clock.

The life of flowers varies from a fraction of a day to a month or more. There are several factors which control the life span. In many flowers the petals are abscised (dropped) as in poppies and pelargoniums. In others they wilt as in cacti and orchids. Wilting is the result of loss of vitality of the cells of the petals either because their sugars have been respired as in *Chrysanthemum* or because their proteins have decomposed as in cacti (see PLANT RESPIRATION PROTEIN). In others such as orchids the auxin released by the pollinia causes wilting.

Most flowers have mechanisms for cross pollination many are actually self sterile. Sterility in flowers may be the result of a large number of factors such as genetic block (especially in triploids and others where abnormal meiosis occur) lack of germination of pollen insufficient growth in length of pollen tubes as in the long styles of *Oenothera* or corn or lack of chemotropism which is attraction of the pollen tubes to the ovules.

Pollination is most commonly effected by flying insects which are attracted to the flowers by color or smell. In many flowers the development of odor is periodic. In the night blooming jasmine and in tobacco the flowers open at sunset and at the same time become fragrant the odor disappears again the following morning at about the time the flowers close. Other pollinators are ants humming birds or bats.

A large group of plants such as ragweed grasses conifers and trees with male flowers in catkins are pollinated by wind their flowers are usually inconspicuous. Their pollen discharged in large amounts is a major cause of hay fever.

Pollination by mechanical means is sometimes required when the pollen does not readily come out of the anthers for example the shaking of the flowers of tomato. Very rare are cases of pollination by water (the male flowers of *Callisneria* float on the water and thus their open anthers come in contact with the stigmata of the female flowers). In a few cases the pollen is ejected by the snapping open of the flowers as in *Pilea*.

Most interesting are the honey excreting nectaries (see SECRETORY STRUCTURES PLANT). These

are usually found at the base of the flower or in the pedicel (over 1 ft long in *Angraecum sesquipedale*) or sometimes outside the flower on bracts as in the plant family Marcgraviaceae or in the genus *Euphorbia*. This honey is excreted by special glandular cells or is pressed out of the phloem. The pollen in insect pollinated flowers is usually sticky because it is covered with a waxlike material.

Many flowers show marked movements before opening or after pollination for example poppies and *Linaria*. These movements are usually due to differential growth of the two sides of the flower stalk caused by auxin. See PLANT MOVEMENTS.

**Fruit development.** Auxin plays a very important role in the growth of the ovary after pollination. The pollen itself provides the auxin in the ovary which is produced in the fertilized ovule. Therefore an ovary of a nonpollinated flower usually does not enlarge but if treated with auxin it may produce parthenocarpic fruits such as seedless tomatoes or watermelons. It was found that in the naturally parthenocarpic fruit of the navel orange the pulp in the developing fruit provides the auxin necessary for growth. Auxin application will lead to the formation of parthenocarpic fruit at low temperatures during the middle of summer it has no effect.

If every flower grew into a fruit most plants would not be able to support the crop. However many flowers drop off before fruits start to grow and some of the growing fruits also fall. Auxin sprays are sometimes effective in preventing fruit drop at present such sprays are generally applied to prevent the preharvest drop of apple.

As a fruit grows its total respiration increases until it is almost ripe then respiration decreases. In some fruits for example the avocado a so-called climacteric rise in respiration occurs before the carbon dioxide production more than doubles just prior to the fully ripe stage however this happens only after the fruit is picked off the tree.

#### DOMINANCE AND GERMINATION

Every leaf carries a bud in its axil which can grow into a shoot with leaves and buds. Like each of these buds in its turn has the potential of growing into a leafy shoot. Should this happen the plant would soon become an inextricable clump of branches. Although it does not occur naturally there are certain ideas which cause every axillary bud to grow. For example a fungus causes the development of masses of small branches called witches brooms in trees.

**Apical dominance.** In a normal plant only a small percentage of the axillary buds grow into a shoot. When for one reason or another the apical bud ceases to grow with a few axillary buds lowered on the stem will develop. This suppressing effect of the apical bud on lateral or axillary buds is called apical dominance. For some time it had been expected that the apical bud exerted its influence through the production of a hormone like substance. After auxin was discovered to be the stem

g: n h o r m n e p d u c e d i n t h s t e m t p i t  
l u s h o w n t o b e t h e m a t e i a l p r d u c d b y t h e  
l b d t h t i s r e s p o n s i b l e f o r n h b t n o f a x l  
v b d g r o w t h R e m a l o f t h e a p c a l b u d e  
m t h i h b u n b u t r e p l a c e m e n t o f t h e a p c a l  
l w i t h a a d e q u a t a x i s s u p p l y f s t r s t h  
a l b u d h b i t i o n H w e e o n l y a f e w h u s  
r u p t o f t h e a x i s s u p p l y r e l e a s e t h e l a t  
a l b u d n h i t n i r v e b l y

A p c a l d o m n e e h s m n y n t e r e t i s c h a a c  
t F i t a n e t h i n h i b i t i o n s r a s w t h  
i a e f o m t h t y p o d t h b d s f a r t h e r r e  
d e f r n t h a p c l b d r e m o s t n h i b i t  
h e r a t h e b u d n e r e t o t h a e t h b t c h a n c e  
d e v l o p m e n t U p o n e m o a l o f t h e a p c l b u d  
i s u p p r o m o t x l l a r y b d t e t t g r o w o c e  
i y t a s t g r w i g t f y n h b t b d a f r t h e r d w n  
n t h t m t p

I n a t r e n d t o n o c u n d e r w h c h t h e b a a l  
d g w m o r e t h a n t h e n e a r t h e p F o r  
t m p l a f t e a w a m w i t p e a c h e h o w d  
i y d f o l t o t h t s t h e a p c a l b u d f a l t o p e  
s p r i n g a n d b d l w e d w n t h e t e m s r t h e  
l y n e s h c h g r w

M y h y p o t h e s i s h a s b e e o f f e r e d t o e x p l a n  
h e m e h a i m f u n a t i o n n l t e r a l b u d  
i b t T h d r e t e c t o n h y p o t h e s i s s t a t s t h a t  
t h i s i s m r l y a m t i s a u s e n t r i n a n d  
l w n o t t a u x n c e l l e s t e m g w i t h  
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t h d n t a c n t i t h e l l n n e n a t u r o f  
n h b t n B s i d i t h b e n a h w n t t n o t  
t h t i s a m t o f a n b t h e r i a t a m o u n t s  
b d n d l m t h a t t r l g r w i t h O l y w h e n  
t h u t i t i n t h e b u d e e d s t h t n  
t h d j t t m b d g o w t h p s b l I n  
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n t l i t n p o t f t h e r n t l g r o w t h f a  
t

A p l d m n n a a p p r m t h e w s I n  
f r t h e p e n d e l g r o w t h o f t h p i m y  
h o o t s a l l d t h i s p w h l l i t a l  
h o o t g r w m l e s h o r t a l l y p l g o  
t p l l y W h t h a p x i e m e d t h e p c a l  
b d i n j e d m f i t h e h g h r i d e  
b x h e s w l l b e m r t h o t p n d t a k o t h e  
t i p o s o d f e r n f t h e o i g n i a p a l  
b d T h u s p n s a d h b t A u c r i  
t h p l s t p e g r t h i t h e l e a l h t n t  
p n i t h d m e f t h e p c a l b d f  
t h y m a n p l g i s p e s n i t h a b e f  
p l l d

**Bud dormancy** A p l e d p r l y t h  
m i t f b u d d t g o w b a e f t h e  
l e h b t t a b l h d b y t h g t h o f t h e  
a p l b f A s o o t h e l t m h i t  
r m e d m t h x l l y b u d b e g t g r w  
a l l y t h f w d y M b u d l i  
d n e r e c t i s w h t h g n g e f t o  
l o r m f b l s d w h p l d o m i  
t m d l e r f b u d d r m n t D m n t  
t d o r o m e d d u r l t i w t

When a lilac oak or peach branch is cut off a  
p l n t g o w i n g o u t s d e a n d b r o u g h t i n t h e g r e e n  
h o u s e t h e b u d w i l l n o t d e v e l o p b e t w e n O c t o b e r  
a n d F e b r u a r y I n A p r i l r e v e n i n e a r l y s u m m e r  
t h e p l a n t s h a e n o n d r m a n t b u d s a n d t h e y s t a r t  
t o g r o w a s o o n a s t h e b a n c h e s a r e r e m o v e d a n d  
t h e c u t e n d s p t a a m o t m e d i u m D o r m a n c y o f  
t h b u d i n d u c e d b y t h e s h o r t d a y l i g h t e x p u r  
o f t h e b r n c h e i n a t u m n W h n u b d e i d u o u s  
t e e a r e k e p t t h r o u g h o t t h e s u m m r u n d e r l n g  
d a y c o n d i t i o n s t h e b u d d o n o t b e c o m e d o r m a n t  
a n d t h e y w i l l d e v e l o p a t a n t i m e w h e n t h e t e m  
p e r t r i s f v r a b l e a n d t h e c r r e l a t e i n h i b i  
t i o n s r e m o v e d

I n d u c e d b u d d o r m a n c y c a n b e t o k e i n m e r a l  
w a y s I n n a t r e i t d o n e b y e x p o u r e f o r e v e r a l  
m o t h s t n e a r f r e e z i n g t e m p e r a t u r e P e a c h o r  
p e a r t r e e b o u g h t i n t o t h e g r e e n h o u s e i n l t e a m  
m r r s t u m a r e d o r m n t a n d t h e y c a r e m a n  
d o m n t f o r m o r e t h a n a y e a r b e c a u s e t h b u d s  
h a n o t b e n e p o s e d t o l d T h e b u d i t e l f m m  
b e k e p t c o l d O n b r a n c h w h h a s b e m p a t i a l l y  
c o o l e d n l y t h e b d s o n t h e c o l d p a r t d e e l o p

I a n u m b e r o f c a s e s a c h e m i c a l t r e a t m e n t c a n  
s u b t i t u t e f o r t h e c o l d r e q u r e m e n t a n d e t h e r  
t h y l n e c h l o o h y d r i n p o r s a w l l a n t r p h e  
n l a n d t h y l e h a e b e e n u e d t b e k b u d d o r  
m a n c y C h e m i c a l t r e a t m e n t s h a t t h e a d a n t a g e o f  
r q u a g o n l y f e w d a y s n e c n t r a t t o t h e c o l d  
t p o s e w h c h m u t l a t w e e k s r m o n t h s

B u l b a n d t b e c o m m o n l y h a v e t g t h o u g h  
d r m n t i d b f t h e y c a n s p r o u t I n s o m e  
c e t h i s a q u a t i n f t r i g h t d o r m a n c y g l a d  
l l s p t a t l l y o f t h e l l e y n w h c l d r  
e t h y l n e c h l o r h y d r n w l l b e a k i t O t h e r a s  
w l l b e d i c u d i t h r u c l i t h e s e t i o n n  
e a l t r m p e d i y

**Germination** I t h e s e t i o n o n e m b r y o n c  
g r w i t h t h f r m a t o n o f t h e d w a s d e s c b e d  
a n d t w t t d t h t u p n s p e n n g t h e d  
p s i t o d r m a n c n d i t i f m w h h i t  
m r g s u p n g e m i t o n

T h e s e d r e p r e t a t a g e i n t h e d e v e l o p m e n t  
o f a p l a n t w h i p a r t i c u l a r l y i n s t a n t c o l d  
b e t a n d d e l i g h t T h e m a i n f a c t o r o f a s e e d i s  
t p r o d f s p g e n y b y a r r y n g t h e p l t o e r  
u n f v r a b l e c o n d i t i o n a n d f i t a t i n g d t r b u  
t n o t h p e s

I n g e r m n a t i n t h r e e d t t a g e s c b d i s  
i l g u i d d T h e f i r t a t g m p e s t h m a k e o f  
a t e a t a g t h a t c o m p l e t e d w h m l l e l l w a l l s  
a d p o t o p l a t h s u f f i c i e n t w a t e r n e n t A o  
e s t e d w i t h t h w a t e r u p t a k s a n c r a n y  
p a t i n T h e e c o d t a g e i s a c u o n E x c e p t  
f r e p i a t i n n o m u a b l e c h n g e s c r t h e  
e m b r y d n o t n l a d t h e d m o t o b e  
n d i n f u g e d e d n m a t n D r i n g  
t h e f i r t w t a g g e r m i n s e v e i l l  
p o t h e r d n b d e d n d e t t e d  
n m b f t m s w n t a y f e c t o n t h e f u t u r  
g e m a b l y l a r g e n m b e f s e d p e r t f  
s r e v n d d n t h o l w t h t e c h g  
t h t h d i g f t a l e l a g m n t f t h e m

bryo However once this third stage has et in there is no holding back and the embryo goes through its exponential growth to form the seedling or it dies

The second stage that of suspended animation is the most critical because it is the period when it is decided whether the seed will germinate or not it is an all or none process No matter how long or short this second stage of germination lasts once the inhibition has been released growth of the seedling will always be the same

Some of the mechanisms involved in preventing growth of the embryo and the events occurring during the second stage of germination can now be discussed

For a number of seeds it has been established that they contain substances which inhibit germination When such inhibitors are removed either by decomposition or by leaching embryo growth proceeds normally In at least one seed *Amaranthus* and probably in many others such inhibitors also repress respiration Thus *Amaranthus* seeds can be kept for many years in moist soil without germinating or utilizing all their storage food

In other seeds it has been found that the seed coats or certain layers of them are impermeable either to water or to oxygen Breaking (scarifying) of such impermeable layers leads to germination

In many leguminous seeds in which the seed coat is so hard that the embryo cannot break through scarification suffices for germination

In the seeds of wild plants a large number of mechanisms delay germination until the growing conditions for the seedling are favorable Cultivated plants are not grown until the conditions proper for germination and growth consequently germination delays are unnecessary and may be unfavorable The germination behavior of seeds of cultivated and wild plants should be clearly distinguished

Many seeds fail to develop and ripen under conditions which seem unusually favorable for germination such as the moist interior of a melon or of a tomato fruit In such species there are substances in the fruit pulp which inhibit germination In exceptional cases however germinated seeds are found inside the fruit for example occasionally in orange or peaches

Some seeds of northern crop plants such as barley and wheat germinate at low temperature and can be sown in autumn or early spring Other such as corn sugar beet and tobacco require higher temperatures and are sown much later in spring or they are sown in greenhouses and the young seedlings are transplanted in the field for example tomato and chili pepper The latter plants originated in warm climates and grow only during the summer

Seeds of tropical forest trees usually have a high life and unless they germinate immediately after decomposition the humus layer

Many seeds which normally remain dormant during winter need stratification that is treatment with low temperature (near freezing) before they will germinate This treatment is effective only when the seeds are moist

Most of the seeds which have inhibitor hard or impermeable seedcoats or need stratification before they can germinate have normal embryos which will start to grow as soon as conditions are favorable There are other seeds the embryos of which will not develop even when excited Such embryos are either immature or have embryonic dormancy In both cases germination can occur after a sufficient period of waiting during which after ripening (physiological change) take place

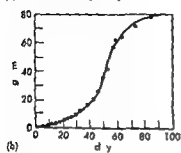
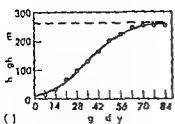
The seed of many plants germinates very irregularly only a few at a time In this way germination is sometimes spread over a period of many years with occasional peaks of germination about yearly intervals

Seed germination of desert plants has been studied in some detail The seed has a number of different mechanisms which prevent premature germination When rains are few and far between the chance that a small amount of rain will be augmented by another rain is slight Under these conditions germination of desert plants would be delayed until about 1 in of rain has fallen continuously and when the soil is sufficiently wetted to ensure normal development of the seedling Some seeds have four or more mechanisms for delayed germination Among these belong (1) presence of germination inhibitors which can be removed by leaching as occurs during a heavy rain (2) chemical salts in the seedcoat or in oil also removed by heavy rain (3) remain of fruit covering which has to be removed before seed can germinate and (4) hard seedcoat which may be removed by scarification usually by rubbing of the seeds with sand or stones for example after a heavy rain a slurry of water sand and gravel runs down the wash carrying with it the seed of mesquite palo verde and other shrubs

Growing plants have a strong inhibitory effect on seed present in the soil around them Germination of many plants does not occur in a cleared site Interesting exceptions are seeds of parasitic or epiparasitic plants such as *Striga* and *Euphasia* Their seeds germinate only under the influence of excretions from the roots of their host plants The repressing phenomenon was found in the gaultheria plant *Pa the rum argenteum* whose seedlings are killed by excretion containing partly of cinnamic acid from the roots of the mature plant See CARBOXYLIC ACID

#### PERIODICITY AND ABSCISSION

There are relatively few plants which germinate in periodicity Basically all trees in the growing point reproduce for example the laying down of leaf primordia cycles and occurs in a definite sequence producing a definite phyllotaxis



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7531 (b) G with f t p l t m d  
f c dry w ght f m G u B km ft  
f f w k D W Th mp O G with d  
f m C mb dg 1942)

Growth periodicity E h d v l l fl ad  
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t h o l l d g n d p e o f g r w h W h e  
h f g h f e l l o f a n n e n d e s e o d d  
s a f t f t m g m d ( f ) r v b e  
e d h w i g t h t f t e a n n i a l l w r t  
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l r e t l t u e d n f w h l  
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m e m b f d d g r w i g a d m t n g  
e l l t i m t h e g w i t t e f a w h l t m  
e g u l d l n a s i a y s m t i g t h s m  
p p t n f g w g l l n t h d f e t  
t g T h u t h g l a r g w i t h t f t h w h l  
p l t h n t g t f t h n d f m o d  
e t h r f t h d d l ) )  
A a e x p l d i t h u d m a y  
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t h p l i j t u l p d t h b l b u l a t t h  
R g p n t g o e t h g h c l f f m n g  
l i t l a e d f l o w e B u t h e  
g t m n t t h g w g r t a w l l y  
l o u d t a k r n d a n w l e a t e d I n t h  
t m t p l t h a m p h m e A f t  
f m g s t n o d ( d p d n g n t h i t )  
t h g w g p o i t t n f r m s i t a t r m t l  
t h r T h n a i t l b d i r t m r w s o m 2.4  
n t d i k w t e m t n a f l w T h u t h  
t m t m a i m p o d m ( m a y f k d l a d  
d f i t p i n d e t y n d e l p m n t a b b

erved In pine peaches and most other tree  
there is a quene f f m a t i o n o f n d e s b e a r i n g  
l e v e s a n d l u d c a l e E e n i f t h e r e i s n o c e a  
t o n o f g r w h t h e b u d w i t h b u d a l e s i s  
f o r m e d f r e x n p l e b e c a e t h e b u d d o t n o t b e  
m e d o r m a t a s a r e p o n t o h r t d a y t r e t m e n t  
t h e c y c l e o f c a l e a n d l e f f m a t i n i s r e p e a t e d  
e r a l t i m e s p e r y e a r g v n a i d e n c o f a n i n t e r  
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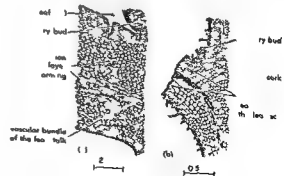
Mny cases f p e i o d e t y i n d e c l o p m e t h a e  
b e e n s h w n t b e i d u c e d b y e x t e r n l f a c t r T h e  
d a i l y f l t i a t i o n o f g r o w t h r a t s o f t e m r o o t  
a n d l a e s h a b e e n f o n d t o b e l i a t l e t i  
p a t t e r n t o t h e d a i l y l i g h t d r k c y c l e t h p e r i o d  
e t y i n t m p e a t u m r t t h e c h a n g e i n r l t i e h u  
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t u ( s l e p ) m v e m e n t o f l a e s t l e i a l s o a n  
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h r i e d w t h t h e 24-h o u c l i m a t i c c y c l e

Very cu u p r i d i t e a r e k n w n i n t h e f l o w  
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t u m f l o w e r i n t h e l w l d f j a o c e e r y f e w  
m n t h b u t a l l p l a n t n t h a r e l c a l t y f l w e r  
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f u d d d r p n t e m p e r a t u r e a c m p n y i n g c  
t h v y s

The mult neou fl w i n g o f a l l b a m b p l a n t s  
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# n p t B u t t h e p l a t a u h a S t b i l t h s  
n C e y l d J a f l w e m u l t n e l y t 4- o r  
7 y a n t r a l S u c h p e d i c t e s e e m t o b e o f  
t h m e t y p s t h e f t h 13- o r 17 y e c c a d

Typ f y a l y p r i o d c i t s i m o w t h a d f l w  
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p a t u r p h t p e r i d

Abscission in plants B c a s p e c i a l t u e s  
a m d u c e d b e t w n t m n d l e a f t a l k r b e  
t w e n t e m d f u t t a l k r a t h b e o f p t l  
c h p l a t d o t e m n b r d e d w t h t d y g



Fg 4 A b ( ) l g i d l c r o t h g h  
b o f l f f p D f l l f m a  
b u s l y h w n l l y i b v r t f t  
t h g h p t f t m d l f b f C l f t  
b c o f t h l f ( F m r D G b b B ) y A  
E i t r y A p p # B l # t - M G w H l 1950)

and dead leaves flowers or fruits (Fig 4) The dead parts drop off (abscise) and are regenerated to carbon dioxide in the carbon cycle of nature of ten before the whole plant has died and fallen to the ground

Although not much is known about how or why a leaf abscises a great deal has been learned about how to stimulate or prevent abscission The abscission layer at the base of the petiole is formed when the leaf blade is removed or when the leaf is no longer active as in autumn The formation of this abscission layer can be delayed by applying auxin or other substances with similar physiological activity on the leaf stalk

The reaction of the ovary and fruit is similar to the leaf When the ovules in the ovary have not been fertilized no auxin reaches the place of attachment of the fruit stalk to the stem and the young fruit abscises The lack of the inhibitory effect associated with developing seeds can be replaced by auxin application to the ovary This means that auxin production by the developing seeds has at least a dual function causing the growth of the ovary and preventing its abscission as explained in the preceding section on fruit development

There are several practical applications of the auxin effects One is the spraying of ripening apples with auxins to prevent preharvest drop and also to prevent bruising of the fruit as they fall on the ground Another is the use of auxin sprays in tomato growing to prevent the flowers on the first clusters from dropping off and to cause the continued growth of the young fruit

In a number of flowers fertilization causes abscission of all the flower parts except the ovary, this presumably is also connected with the auxin production by the developing ovules or by the auxin released by the pollen The latter is the case in the postfloration phenomena in orchids Instead of placing the pollinia on the stigma auxin can be applied and will produce swelling of the ovary and wilting of the petal

The mechanical cotton pickers work properly only when the cotton plants are leafless The foregoing methods have been developed to defoliate cotton fields This can be done either by killing the leaf blades which will cause abscission of the petioles as though it had been debladed or by applying an antiauxin

Not only petioles but also whole branches may be dropped through the formation of an abscission layer This occurs in *Castilleja* and in *Sterculia* and results in a self pruning operation in which the older branches shaded by the higher ones are abscised

**Tissue culture in plants** Under the heading of tissue cultures often the problem of organ culture is also considered The growth of roots in vitro was discussed under the general heading of plant hormones and the culture of growing point was treated under vegetative meristematic activity Typical plant tissue cultures were achieved for the first

time about 1938 When pieces of stem root or other organs are placed aseptically on an agar medium containing sugar and mineral nutrients, they either regenerate buds and roots and grow a complete plant or they produce a small mass of undifferentiated tissue called callus which develops into a globular mass on top of the piece of stem To make this globular mass of undifferentiated parenchyma cells grow to a larger mass it is necessary to add auxin to the medium

Thus callus tissue transplanted aseptically on a medium containing sugar mineral salts and auxin will grow to a large mass of undifferentiated cells This mass of callus can be subdivided into small pieces and each piece will continue to grow equally well on this medium Whereas this is the rule occasionally a piece of such a callus culture will lose the requirement for auxin in the medium and will then continue to grow on a medium containing only sugar and salts This is called habituation and makes these tissues less dependent upon their environment

Usually plant tissues are completely dependent for growth upon the surrounding tissue and organs and such tissues fail to grow when the adjacent parts become mature An exception exists in the case of crown gall an abnormal growth which usually occurs near the root crown on stems Crown gall is induced by *Bacterium tumefaciens* and it is largely a mass of callus It is possible to keep the crown gall callus growing even when the bacteria have been eliminated because the callus tissue loses the requirement for auxin in the medium It will grow in the same sugar nutrient medium in which habituated cultures develop Because of its independence of auxin it has escaped the growth control of the plant This explains why a crown gall develops

More recently a number of substances have been isolated and identified which increase growth of callus cells usually manifold Many are present in coconut milk Among them kinetin or 6-furfuryl aminopurine has been investigated most extensively

The most interesting new development in tissue culture is that it has been found possible by several different means to make a single callus cell develop into a large callus mass and to have this differentiate into a shoot and ultimately into a complete plant Thus a single undifferentiated cell has the potentialities of developing into the complete organism just as the egg cell has

Usually no differentiation of tissues and organs occurs in a callus mass Upon transplanting a piece of differentiated tissue into it however a differentiation of callus cells in the immediate vicinity of the transplant will occur

#### SEASONAL THERMOPERIODICITY

Temperature influences most physiological processes The optimal temperature is the temperature at which a process is fastest or most efficient Also the optimal temperature is the rate of the

oc s de r e sten rapidly s a res it f n  
y t the p toplasm Th re also a minimum  
mp tur bel w b h c h t p r e s d o s n t g  
at R l m y c a e t h s l o w t t e m p e r a t u r e  
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e l e s c o o l d t o w e l l b e l o w 0 C ( s e e O s  
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h e m a l p c s T h m a t h a t f o e y r i  
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p n r m l y w h n t h e y e b y e t e s t a s l y  
c y t o f l o w f l l o d b y h i g h t e m p t T h  
r e q u m u t c l l e d s o a l t h r m r d c t y

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l l n d t h g w a g p t h a f o r m d  
l y f l t p m d D g t h n t s e w  
w e k e m r l e a f p m r d a d f l w r p  
m d u m p d u d T h p e s f m p h  
g e l s a l a t v l y h i g h t t m p e t u e p t m m  
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t h f l w r p m d h e b n t s e d B y k p  
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t y d a d i m

A t a m w h t h g h t e m p e t u e 5-10 C t h  
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f i w d h u g h t 13-17 C t h y w l l p t  
p d l y T h d t h p p n t h b l b k p t a t  
0 C t h d t t h a t p e t t m e t t 5-10 C f  
l m t h n t l f r l t g w o t h T h s  
5-10 C a d l j e d p t m m w h t h e f f t  
b e c m e a p p r n t m e t i m f t h t e m t  
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and dead leaves flowers or fruits (Fig 4) The dead parts drop off (abscise) and are regenerated to carbon dioxide in the carbon cycle of nature often before the whole plant has died and fallen to the ground

Although not much is known about how or why a leaf abscises a great deal has been learned about how to stimulate or prevent abscission The abscission layer at the base of the petiole is formed when the leaf blade is removed or when the leaf is no longer active as in autumn The formation of this abscission layer can be delayed by applying auxin or other substances with similar physiological activity on the leaf stalk stump

The reaction of the ovary and fruit is similar to the leaf When the ovules in the ovary have not been fertilized no auxin reaches the place of attachment of the fruit stalk to the stem and the young fruit abscises The lack of the inhibitory effect associated with developing seeds can be replaced by auxin application to the ovary This means that auxin production by the developing seeds has at least a dual function causing the growth of the ovary and preventing its abscission as explained in the preceding section on fruit development

There are several practical applications of the auxin effects One is the spraying of ripening apples with auxins to prevent premature drop and also to prevent bruising of the fruit as they fall on the ground Another is the use of auxin spray on tomato growing to prevent the flowers on the first clusters from dropping off and to cause the continued growth of the young fruit

In a number of flowers fertilization causes abscission of all the flower parts except the ovary thus presumably is also connected with the auxin production by the developing ovules or by the auxin released by the pollen The latter is the cause in the postfloration phenomena in orchid Instead of placing the pollinia on the stigma auxin can be applied and will produce swelling of the ovary and wilting of the petals

The mechanical cotton pickers work perfectly only when the cotton plant are leafless Therefore methods have been developed to defoliate cotton fields This can be done either by killing the leaf blade which will cause abscission of the petiole as though it had been debilitated or by applying an antiauxin

Not only petioles but also whole branches may be dropped through the formation of an abscission layer This occurs in *Castilleja* and in *Sterculia* and results in a self-pruning operation in which the older branches shaded by the higher one are abscised

**Tissue culture in plants** Under the heading of tissue cultures often the problem of organ culture is also considered The growth of roots in vitro was discussed under the general heading of plant hormones and the culture of growing point was treated under vegetative meristematic activity Typical plant tissue culture were achieved for the first

time about 1938 When pieces of stem root or other organs are placed aseptically on an agar medium containing sugar and mineral nutrient they either regenerate buds and root and grow to a complete plant or they produce a mass of undifferentiated tissue called callus which develops into a globular mass on top of the piece of stem To make this globular mass of undifferentiated parenchyma cells grow to a larger mass it is necessary to add auxin to the medium

Thus callus tissue transplanted aseptically in a medium containing sugar mineral salts and auxin will grow to a large mass of undifferentiated cells This mass of callus can be subdivided into small pieces and each piece will continue to grow equally well on this medium Whereas this is the rule occasionally a piece of such a callus will lose the requirement for auxin in the medium and will then continue to grow on a medium containing only sugar and salt This is called habituation and makes the tissue dependent upon their environment

Usually plant tissues are completely dependent for growth upon the surrounding tissues and organs and such tissues fail to grow when the adjacent parts become mature An exception exists in the case of crown gall an abnormal growth which usually occurs near the root crown on tomatoes Crown gall is induced by *Bacterium tumefaciens* and it is largely a mass of callus It is possible to keep the crown gall callus growing even when the bacteria have been eliminated because the callus tissue loses the requirement for auxin in the medium It will grow in the same sugar nutrient medium in which habituated cultures develop Because of its independence of auxin it has escaped the growth control of the plant This explains why a crown gall develops

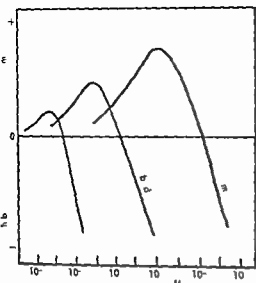
More recently a number of substances have been isolated and identified which increase growth of callus cells usually manyfold Many are present in coconut milk Among them kinetin or 6-furfuryl aminopurine has been investigated most extensively

The most interesting new development in tissue culture is that it has been found possible by several different means to make a single callus cell develop into a large callus mass and to have this differentiated into a shoot and ultimately into a complete plant Thus a single undifferentiated cell has the potentialities of developing into the complete organism just as the egg cell has

Usually no differentiation of tissue and organ occurs in a callus mass Upon transplanting a piece of differentiated tissue into the host a differentiation of callus cells in the immediate vicinity of the transplant will occur

#### SEASONAL THERMOPERIODICITY

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tion in Plants 1953 F W Went *Experimental Control of Plant Growth* 1957 P R White *Cultivation of Animal and Plant Cells* 1954

## Plant hormones

Defined by F W Went and K V Thimann (1937) to be a substance which being produced in any one part of the plant is transferred to another part and there influences a specific physiological process. Hormone can be described as chemical messenger. They transmit the controls of specific processes from one part of the organism to another. They are usually present in relatively small quantities in contrast to substrates or most nutrients. Plant hormones which control growth have been identified and hormones controlling flowering are suspected but not yet identified.

With the agglomeration of large numbers of cells into organisms there must be some organization of the cell mass or else the result will be no more than a callus colony or tumor. In green plants this organization can be thought of as a development for the promotion of photosynthesis and the elaboration of food materials. Such organization must entail a control of the sites of growth of the differentiation of cells into tissues and of the development of direction or polarity in the whole mass. Thus in a complex plant there must be regions of growth there must be tissues which serve the various needs of water supply food transport photosynthetic activities mechanical support and the other functions of plant organisms and finally there must be a direction of the whole organism into a top and bottom or shoot and root. The plant growth hormones are the principal chemical messengers that are known to carry on these physiological controls. They are the developmental forces which direct so to speak the growth and form of the plant.

**Nomenclature** According to the van Oebeeck Committee (1954) the most generally accepted terms covering the plant growth hormones and related natural and synthetic compounds include plant regulators the natural and synthetic organic compounds which in small amounts promote in habit or otherwise modify any physiological process in plants and plant hormones plant regulators which occur naturally in plants and usually move within the plant from a site of production to a site of action.

Two major divisions of plant regulators are growth regulator (compound which affect growth) and flowering regulators (compound which affect flowering). The same distinctions apply to plant hormones thus there are plant growth hormone of which several are known and many are yet to be identified and plant flowering hormones none of which are definitely identified as yet.

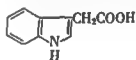
The word auxin designate a kind of growth regulator referring to that kind which has the capacity for inducing elongation in horizontal stems the manner of indoleacetic acid the best known plant growth hormone. Included in this category are

synthetic plant growth regulators and the plant growth hormones. The best known synthetic auxin is 2,4-D (2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid) the weed killer.

**Known plant hormones** From the above classification it will be discerned that two types of hormones are assumed to exist in plants growth hormones and flowering hormones. In addition there are other types of natural growth regulators are recognized the gibberellins which have enormous effect on cell elongation the kinins which have effect on cell division and finally growth inhibitors. Each of these three types of factors has been detected in plants often in surprisingly large amounts. Some of these powerful biological agents and their sites of origin some of them have begun to emerge from the research of plant biochemists and physiologists. Whether or not these materials are plant hormones in that they move from one part to another still has to be learned.

Each of the two types of plant hormones will first be discussed followed by a brief description of the three other types of natural growth regulators.

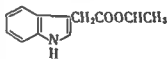
**Occurrence of growth hormone** The most important plant growth hormone indoleacetic acid has been found in many higher plants. It was first isolated from plants by K V Thimann (1933) and found it in bread mold and it has since been identified in corn oat bean sugar cane pineapple tomato and many other plants. Until the 1950s it was thought that this compound was the growth hormone in all higher plants. However increasing evidence is accumulating which makes clear that many other compounds are present in plants which can do the same job in stimulating growth. Only a few of these have been identified including



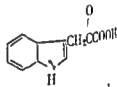
Indoleacetic acid



Indoleacetonitrile



Ethyl indoleacetate



Indolepyruvic acid

indoleacetonitrile ethyl indoleacetate and indolepyruvic acid. Formulas for the plant growth hormone are reproduced here. On chemical grounds one can see that each of the materials is easily converted to indoleacetic acid and that each of the compounds mentioned has a role in the control of growth. However the question is not completely answered and many other compounds are yet to be identified which give no chemical test for it and hence fulfill nothing quite different. Indoleacetic acid is the most important plant growth regulator in the plant kingdom.

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 T h m P h i h m 193

# Plant keys

B l a i t h e u e d a n a l y t c a l k e y s i n t h i d n t i f y  
 i g o f p l a n t f r m a n y y e a r T h e b a i p r n c p l e  
 o f s u c h a k e y i s t h e f i n d i g o f c n t r i n g c h a r a  
 t e s a d t h e e o f t h e e t o s u l d i d e t h e g r u p b e  
 i g s t d d i n t o t w o o r m r e b r a l e s F o r e a m  
 p l e i n a c o l l e c t i o n o f p l a n t s m e h a s c o m p o u d  
 l a e s i n c o t r t t t h e t h e s h a g s m p l e  
 l a e s O n t h i s b a i t h p l a t a r e e p a r a t e d  
 t h o e w t h c o m p o u n d l e x e s i c l m n a t e d f o m  
 t h e r a n g e o f p o s i b l i t i e s m h e n t i n t h t h r  
 p l a n t s t h s t h p r b l e m o f i d e n t i f i c a t i o n i s n a r  
 r o w e d T h e k y m a y t a t t h a t a m e p l a n t a r e  
 h a r y a n d s m e g l b r o u t h a t o m e h v e y e l l o w  
 f l o w e r s a n d o t h e r w h i t e B y c l e a m i n a t i n  
 o f t h p l t b y c o n t r a t i g e g h c h a r a t e r a d  
 b y e l m i n t i n g e n o u g h m e m b e s f t h e g r o u p t h e  
 u m b e r o f p o s i b l i t i e s f i a l l y r e d u c d t o n e  
 n a m e o f t h p l a n t b i n g i d n t f i e d I f t h p l a n t b e i n g  
 s t d d d f l e n o e o m e l a r a c t e r i s t i c s  
 f r m l l t h e k n o w n p l a n t s t i g s i b l e t h a t a  
 n e w p l a n t l e e n f i n d

S r i d f l r e n t y p e o f k e y h v e b e n d e s e d  
 A m u h u e d t y p e t h i n d n t e d k e y i n w h h t h e  
 d e c r i p t i o n f e a c h l a c t a r e i n c a s g l y m d  
 n t e d a g e n d s t c e f r m t h l i t h a d m a r g  
 i f l e p a g T h l i n b e o m m o m o i n  
 d n t e d a s t h k e y i s e x t e n d e t i n c l d e a l a r g r

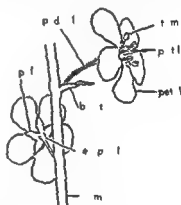


Fig 1 D s m o f a m p l e t f l o w

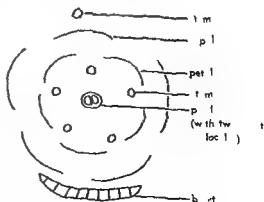
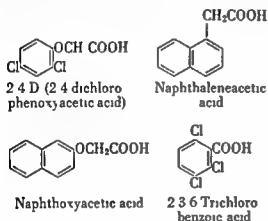


Fig 2 F l i d g m f t h f l w h w Fig 1

The mechanism of action of the growth hormone is an exciting area which is now receiving careful attention from plant biochemists. Several theories have been proposed to explain the action but each has been made doubtful by further examination and experiment. Tests of various synthetic chemicals for auxin activity have permitted some generalizations about what the molecule must be like to be active in stimulating growth as an auxin. Almost all the compounds having this activity contain an aromatic nucleus and an acid side chain and a particular spatial configuration. Some synthetic compounds which are widely used as auxins include 2,4-D and related chlorinated acids, naphthalene acetic acid, naphthoxyacetic acid and 2,3,6-trichlorobenzoic acid. Formulas for some common synthetic auxins are given here. The manner in



which the various auxins can control the growth of plants is not clear, but the bulk of the evidence has at least established that the site of auxin is at the cell wall. In some manner the auxins cause a loosening and elasticizing of the cell wall and through a stretching process cell growth then takes place with associated deposition of new cell wall material. The action is a metabolic one and results in marked stimulation of the metabolic rate as growth is increased.

**Uses.** Agriculturally the auxins have found numerous uses and have led to the beginnings of chemical control of crop growth. The large use of the auxins has been in the area of herbicides. These chemicals cause death of plants at extremely low rates of application and also are highly selective. In general they are more lethal against the broad-leaved plants than against the grasses with the result that they are most useful in killing broad-leaved weeds in fields of small grains and corn. The most common auxin herbicides are 2,4-D, 2,4,5-T (2,4,5 trichlorophenoxyacetic acid) and the trichlorinated benzoic acids. In 1952 60,000,000 lb of 2,4-D was produced in the United States alone. See HERBICIDES.

The actions of auxins on tissue differentiation permit three other agricultural uses: the rooting of cuttings, the control of fruit abscission or drop, and the induction of flowering. Rooting can be greatly stimulated in plant cutting by dipping the basal ends into either a solution or a dry powder of

auxin (see STEM CUTTINGS). Indolebutyric and naphthaleneacetic acids are the common auxins for this use. The premature drop of apples and some other fruits can be prevented by the application of auxins. Weak solutions of 2,4,5 trichlorophenoxypropionic acid are sprayed onto the trees several weeks before the fruit might start to drop and the drop is not only alleviated but the color of the apple fruits is considerably increased. The initiation of flowering can be triggered in the pineapple with the application of naphthaleneacetic acid, a fact which has been highly useful in the commercial production of these fruits, implying the harvest schedules enormously. Few other species of plants have been found to share this flowering response to auxins.

One of the growth functions which the plant growth hormone controls is the complex process of fertilization and the commencement of fruit growth or fruit set. When pollen germinates on a flower ovary, a surge of growth hormone production results which starts the growth of the fruit from the ovary. In some species of plants the pollen can be substituted for by the application of synthetic auxins. This chemical setting of fruit which results in a seedless fruit has found commercial application in the culture of tomatoes and figs.

**Flowering hormone.** The seasonal flowering of many plants has been found to be controlled by the length of day in the varying season. From the discovery of photoperiodism it has been found that the stimulus to flower in response to day length changes originates principally in the leaves of plants. Thus the stimulus must move from the leaves to the growing point where flower buds will be differentiated. This stimulus then can be considered as a flowering hormone although it has never been separated from intact plants. See PHOTOPERIODISM IN PLANTS.

Various research workers have grafted together plants which have different day length requirements for flowering and found that when a flowering plant is grafted to a nonflowering plant in various combinations the flowering stimulus can move over to the nonflowering member of the pair and make it flower. It is deduced that the same flowering hormone is involved in the plants of the various photoperiodic classes. The stimulus can apparently cross between plants only when there is a living connection between them and there has been essentially no success in extraction or diffusion of a flowering hormone out of plant tissue. The flowering hormone is not the same as the growth hormone because it can move in any direction in living tissue and the growth hormone moves in a polar fashion. See GRAFTING OF PLANTS.

**Other growth regulators.** One of the most dramatic discoveries in plant chemistry was that of the gibberellins. These compounds were isolated by Japanese scientists from rice plants infected with a disease which caused abnormal extremely rapid growth. The fungus which causes the rice blast disease is *Gibberella fujikuri*; was found

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k g en in T hle 2

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cerned w th lrg n groups p rallel k y are mo e  
i fact ry

tbl 1 Ex mpt f an ind ted key (R s c d m )

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b t m l f y t th	fl rac ce		
Lat	l f r a s t b l g pl ta		
	fw t g d		
d Le fl t f l w l es			
ro d d d t f r d pet la			C p l ns
l l em lons			
d Le fl is th be es d			
	l l th hus petal		
l l m m long			C p e n y l r o ca
Lat l l fl al	pl ta		
lly f d r y aro			C l
Le ee t	toothed t p		
llyd d d			
b Flo r s p pl			C d u g l a
b Flo r s b t			
t m t f m t b e rous			
b se			C b l h o s
l m d e c m b e t t l f			C r o l n d f l

tbl 2 Ex mpt f p r t o n of p r l l k y  
(l e s e a d f m l e s)

l V o s l y h h a c o	pl t s w t h	l b d l e s a c t
t e d h r o h h p t h	Le e s w t h l o s e d	
m o s l y p a l l	e d l t e d P t f l w	
m e u l l y 3	6 a	l l h o c e p t t h
m e u s m l a z ( )		
l l t c r o	d w o o d y p l t w t h t h	l b
d l	lly e d	g h o t h p t h L e e s
	l e d t h p e	F l w p t h u s lly
t a o r o s (8)		

2 MONOCOTYLEDONS

Flo e r s	th	th t p e	th
th h	B o s h y	p a s	L e e s
p e	l n d	d t	n d
Flo r s	th	p e r	th t h o
		p a r t (3)	
1 P e r	th p a s e d r y	d s c l l k	
h f y			
2 P e r	th p a s h	h a c o	c o l e d
o v h	u e t l k	l f f y (4)	
4 P	th f r e e	f r o m t l	r y
l p	th m o r e	l e s s	d b t t
		r y ( )	
Flo r s	r r g u l	t m	l
r y			
Flo r s	r r g u l	c e p t	l t m
3 6 (6)			
4 F l	m p e	f e e t	p l t d o m
c r o u	l m l	l e a	t e d
4 F l e r s	p e	f e e t (7)	
l m	6 p e	h p t	s u b r u c t e d
l a m e n a	3 p e r	h p a r t	c o l t
t b u l			

ll grams symbols and formula may be n  
clud d in key The e in a c n are botanica  
shorthand in wh h many featu es of a plant may  
be repre ent n detail in limited pa n

Floral diagram The floral diagram s ntially  
a graph d ram of c r o s section of a fl w e  
(F l l) and may be represented as hown in Fig  
2 It will be noted th t there are f ( m e t i m e  
more or l e s ) e t s f l r a l p a t s a a n g e d ;  
who f n w t h i s o t h

Fl al symb ls The e may be u e d t t p r e n t  
ous featu e of a flower Thus CA might rep  
n t h c e l y ( t p e d l s e p a l s ) C O the corolla  
(c m p o s e d of p e t a l ) S t h t a m e n s P t h  
p r l ( c m p d of c a r p e l s ) S m l l f i g u e s w r i t t e n  
a s e p n e t m y b e u e d to i n d i c a t e t h n u m b e r  
f p r t s a s C A M a n y o t h e r f e a t u r e s c n b e i n d i  
c a t e d b y a d d t n a l s y m b o l s

F l o r l f m u l a s C o m b i n a t i o n f f l a l s y m b o l  
m a k e p f l a l f o r m u l a T h u s t h t r t u e o f  
f l o w e r m i g h t b e p r e s e n t e d b y t h e f l l o w i n g f o r  
m l a

CA CO<sup>3</sup> S P<sub>2</sub>

T h s f m u l a g f i e t h t t h e a l y x i m p e d  
of 3 e p a l s t h e c o r l l of 3 p e t l s t h t t h r e  
6 t m e n s a d t h a t t h e p t l i s m d e u p f 3 c r  
p l s n t d a d i c a t d b y t h e c i r c l o u t t h e 3  
T h l u e b n t h t h P i n d t e t h a t t h p a t l  
s p e

Floral charts A floral chart may e r v e b t h a s a  
key t f a m l e r d s a d g a p h c r e p r e  
s e n t a t i o n f r i t u h p W h n c o r n e d w t h  
e l t v e l y m a l l g o u s ( h a v n g f w f m l i e ) f l  
c h t l l e k y s a e a r e r o m k e d t u  
T h f l o r a l c h t p t d i F g 3 a r r a g e d e  
t a l l e c o d g t o t h s y t e m of C h l l E B e  
s e y i n t m p l e t e f t h e t e U n i t d S t a t e  
b u t i t l d m t f t h e l a g e a d i m p o r t n t  
f a m l e n d i f t a t e s t f g e n a l n t f a l l  
s m l a h a t s T h l f t b r a c h p r e s e t t h e m  
t y l e d s a d t h t e a d g h t b a h e a t h  
d c t y l e d n T h e r g u l b r k e r s l e a h w  
t h a t e r t i n m i l r l u t o n a r y t e d n e h  
o r r e d d f f r n t g r u p o f h g h e r p l t F  
n m p l a l l f m l e h e l w a e r t n h e h a e e g  
l a x l l ( a t n m p h y ) w h e s t h e b  
t h l n e h r r g u l o l l a ( x g o m r p l y ) A l l  
f m l e b l w a n o t h e r l i n h a e c p l d i s t n c t  
( t a r p y ) w h m s l l a b o e t h a e t h m n t e d  
( y n a r p y ) B y n o t i g t h a t t h l n s r s t h  
r l b n h e o f t h p h y l g t e t m t i  
e t h a t t h m e v l u t r y h a g ( i r  
l t y o f f l w r n n f c a p e l ) m a l t y  
t o o k p l a c e p e a t e d l d f l t p h y l g n t  
l n d t d f f e t t u m a d t t d s d  
p e d t p o N t e n t h l w e r g h t c n e  
r d m p r t n t x c p t s b u t l p c e  
h w g d i n f m t h e r u l e o c c u r m a n y  
t h r f m l S P A T C L A S S I F I C A T I O N P L A N T  
M C O M  
B b l o g p h y S e P L A N T T A X O N O M Y  
[ E L C ]

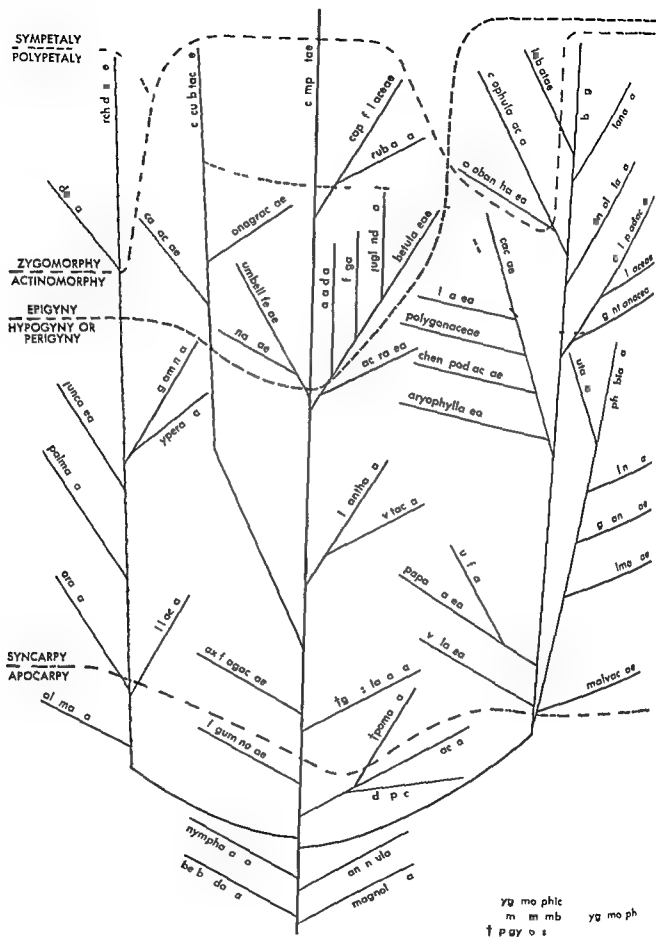


Fig 3 Floral chart of most of the large and important families of angiosperms in the United States according to the system of Chase & Reveal







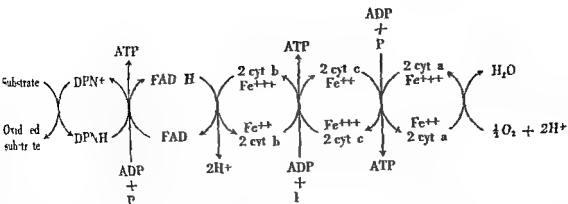


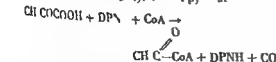
Fig 2 Elct r p H d d t phosph ryl t

tem The ll compo ent s l ed th lec  
tr t fe y tem as well s th r gu ed f  
th m l n ph ph ylat ar all cl zed  
th m to ch d f th ell The phosph ryl  
t n h b rs d elct r n t n port t xy  
g th upt k f rg c pho phosphate nd th  
f m t of n d d t l py opho plat bo d  
(Fig 2) d n s ed ph phat (ADP) to f m  
ad n triph ph t (ATP) The ch me f  
k wn t s l e t n t p r t d d  
t eph p r ylat i how Fig 3

Th d r y f th mp t n t m f s y th  
f ATP f n f n e l ecau ATP t the  
mmed t e f th hem cal e eq d  
t p l m th w k f u t s l t ed b Cle  
ge of eth f the pyr ph ph t e b d ATP  
t the l e f ab t 8000 l/m l The  
sym t app m fl g cells all w th m t  
l e r h bond n w y that make th e e gy  
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the k d f k

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d l v f d hyd ze at e ti s n  
h h th nzym fat e ed c d d ng  
th lat f py d t r b d id nd  
t a d a d th fu th r x d t n f c t c  
id t r bond v d a d wat th ough a v l c  
w r e a t t th t r e d c y l e (Fig 4)

Th f i t p th f x d t t o  
th f t dec b y t f py at



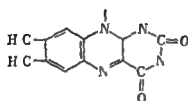
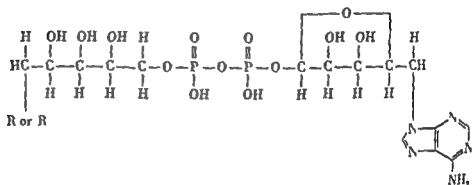
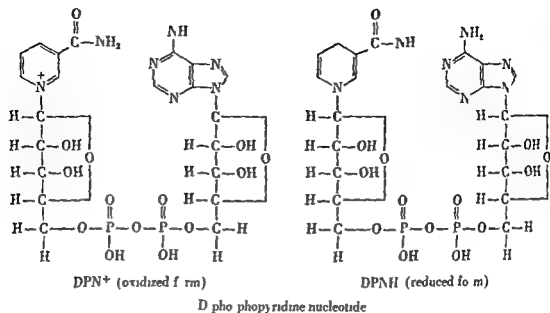
l t l m A (CoA) th d es w th  
t t t f m t ate d f e n me 4  
h h the ed ag th f m t f n  
th m l l f l o e m A f o m p y  
t Th d d f t (DPNH) d d  
b t l f l t th gh th ytoch m  
t m f m th t d p n f e m m s b l m  
th p n t l th t a d y l l ed  
p th f l t f ed d p d e u leo  
t e h h m t t p ly th g v f

f m t o of aden et r ph ph t A m ll frac  
tion of the nergy req uired by plant cell is pro  
ded by s ac ob t p r o c e s d m ed u der  
ca b o h y d a t e s

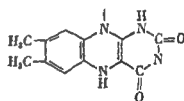
Th met b l m of d f f e n t e l l u b t a n c is  
n t r l e d n d i n t e r p e n d t n m a n y w a y F  
ex m p l the col t r q u e r e d by the t r i a c d  
c y l n y m s a e l e q u e d i n o t h e r o d a t i  
r d u t r c t u n s s c h a the s y the n d d g  
r d a t n f f a t t y a d and f c a b o h y d t e T h e r  
f t h e a n t e r d e p n d e n c i t h e a c t i o n  
c a l y d b y t h e s e n y m e I n a d d i t o n p t u  
l a c o m p d m a y b e a t e r m e d t i n the m e  
t h o l m f e e r a l d f f e n t b t a n c A c e t e  
a t y l c e n y m A p r d c d f m p y r a t and  
f m th d a t o of f a t t y a c d and m n t n  
p e u r f f t t y a c d c t r g n d a d  
t o p e n d o m p d F u r t h e m o b m e a d e  
s t p h p h a t t h m m e d a t e r c f  
e g y f o m t g y r e q i p r s e the r e l a  
t e a t e s f t h e p e s w i l l b f n t n f  
the l e l f d e t p h o p h a t The r a t e f  
p d c t i o n of a d e o n t p h o p h a t b y d t e  
p h s p h y l a t s p t l y f n t f t h c n e n  
t t i l e l of a d e o s d p h p h t a d n  
g m p h p h t e n d p r d u t n the u t i l t o n f  
d e n e t i p h p h t e T h e i n t e r e l t h p  
the d i f f e r t e c t n m e t b l m l t h g h n  
m p l e t e l y d e t o d n d t t d i y c o t t u t a  
y t m o f t m a t c o t o l t h t p e m t c l u l r  
m t b l m t p d m o t h l y S e e A D E N O S I N E  
D I P H O P H A T E ( A D P ) A D E O I E T R I P H O S P H A T E  
( A T P ) M E T B O L I S

# CARBOHYDRATE METABOLISM

The y the f c a b h y d a t s f r m b o n d i  
id d w t e b y the p of p h t y n t h e s  
n e f t h m a i f t e f c r h y d a t e m e  
t b l m f g p l a t Th l h y d t t h u  
p r a d e t h h k e l t o f l l t h e t h l l  
L i a n c e s A l t h g h p h p h y l a t d d r a t i e of  
g l y e a l d h y d r y t h r l l b e r b  
l f t a d d h p r u l l y d n  
th c y l i p f r b n d i v d h t n n  
p h t y the m h f t h b n f i e d t r  
f m e d t o f r t e g l e r d t a c h



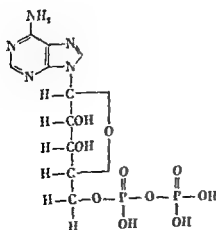
R = FAD (oxidized form)



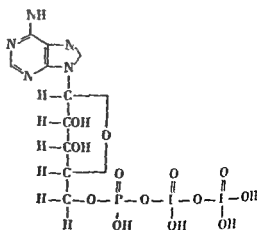
R = FADH (reduced form)

### Flavin adenine dinucleotide

Fig 1 Structural formulas of diphosphopyridine nucleotide and flavin adenine dinucleotide



Adenosine diphosphate



Adenosine triphosphate



Starch  $\text{Th m t b n d a t e s e r v e a r b h y}$   
 $\text{d t f l e p l t k i g d m s f o m d s i b l y b y}$   
 $\text{th t f t h e z y m t a h p h o p h r y l e o n}$   
 $\text{gl e l p h p t}$

$\text{Gl e l p h p t} \rightleftharpoons \text{St r h + a P h p h t}$

$\text{Th f r m t n o f t h e l n p l y m e o f t a l l}$   
 $\text{m y l s e r e q u t h p h o p h o y l s e e z y m e w h c h}$   
 $\text{h p e c f e f t h f r m t o f a 14-g l y c i d l k}$   
 $\text{a s ( F i g 8 ) T h b h e d p o l y m e m y l p t}$   
 $\text{t f r m e d b y t h c t m f b r a h g z y m e}$   
 $\text{(Q z y m ) w h h t r a s f h t h o f t h}$   
 $\text{l p o l y m t t h 6-h y d x y l p t f t h}$   
 $\text{gl c m y l r e s d e s f m y l e ( c m y l p e t )}$   
 $\text{h n l m d d t n t b e g d g r e d b y t c h}$



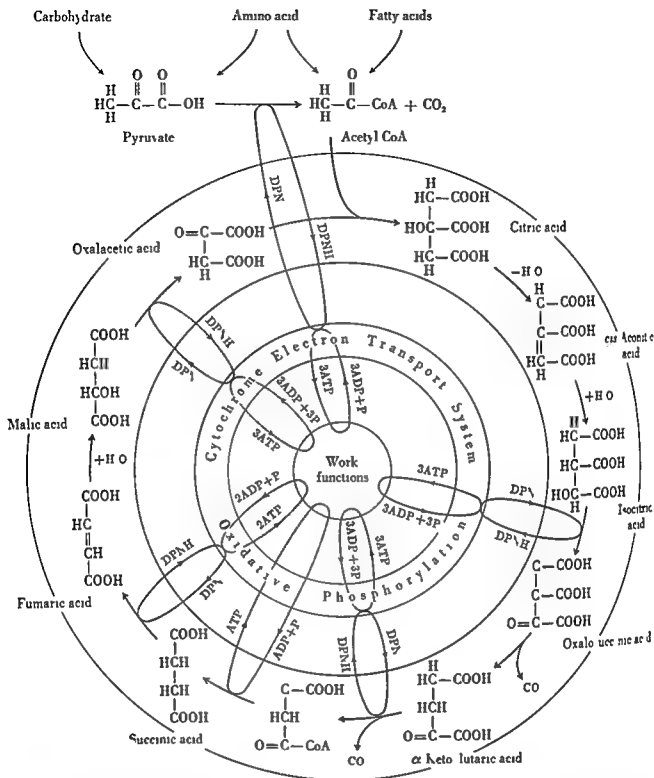


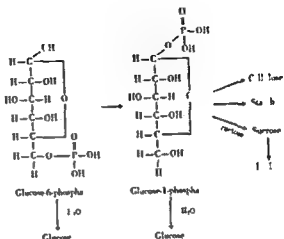
Fig 4 Citric acid cycle

The carbohydrates then undergo further metabolism independent of the processes of photosynthesis.

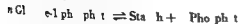
The glyceraldehyde 3 phosphate produced in the photosynthetic cycle gives rise to other carbohydrates as shown in the reactions in Fig 5.

When glucose (from photosynthesis or from hydrolysis of the storage carbohydrate starch and sucrose) and fructose (from sucrose or inulin) are degraded to obtain energy or to provide carbon skeletons for the synthesis of other compounds, the initial reaction in all cases is of phosphorylated intermediate. This pathway of dissimilation (Fig

6) is referred to as glycolysis or the Embden Meyerhof Parnas pathway. Under anaerobic conditions appreciable quantities of ethanol accumulate and there is a net production of only 2 mole of ATP for each mole of glucose converted to ethanol and carbon dioxide. Although many microorganisms can obtain sufficient energy by anaerobic processes to maintain their life cycles, higher plants cannot. Under aerobic conditions the  $\text{DPNH}$  produced by the oxidation of phosphorylated glyceraldehyde to phosphoglyceric acid is reoxidized by the cytochrome system and ethanol is not formed.



Signi f i c a n t i u e f l u c m a y b e m t b o  
l u z e o t f i r m e d b y t h e r t e t h e p t  
p h p h a t p t h w a y I n t h p t h w a y g l u e-6-  
p h o p h t e d i z e d t 6-phosph g l u e i d  
b b t h n d g e d t e d e c r b o y l a t t o  
f r m r i b l e-5-ph p h a t T h e f u t h t f o m a  
t f b l o e-5-ph p h t a e s h w n I n t h d  
g r a m ( 7 ) E z y m c a t l y z g t h e t r a s-  
f r m t h e b e e o b t a e d f m p l a t t  
t r t a E d t h t t h e s e n y m e s f u t m  
v p o d e d b y t h f t t h t a l l f t h c m  
p o d s h w h e r m l p l t s t t t a  
n d t h t C l b l e d I n t e m e d a t e f t h e p e t  
p h o s p h t c y l e e q u i k l y c o t d a t o t h e r  
m p o d l g t I n r y y u g p l t  
t h t E m b d M e y e r h f P r n a p t h w y a p-  
p s t b t h l y p e t e m c h m f t h e  
d u m i t n f g l c s I l d t n t h e e a  
n a e g d e l p m e n t f t h p e t o e p h a  
p h a t p t h w y S C A R B O H Y D R A T E M E T A B O L I S M  
S t a r c h T h m o t b u n d a n t r v e a r b o h y  
d e f t h p l t k n g d m s f m e d r e b l v b y  
t h t f t h z y m s t a c h p h p h r y l o n  
l p h p h t e



Th f r m t f th l e polym f ta ch  
myl e r q th ph pho yl s nzym whi h  
is pect fo th f r m t f l 4-gly d l nk  
(F g 8) The h d polym amyl pect  
f rmed by th act f h an h g nzyme  
(Q ym) wh h t fers h r t ch f th  
h p lym to the 6-hyd xyl p u n f th  
glycyl r d f an myl s ( amyl p t t )  
h in In dd t t b g d g d d by t N

Fig 6 Th  $\square$  thw y f gl d ml t gly  
ly s

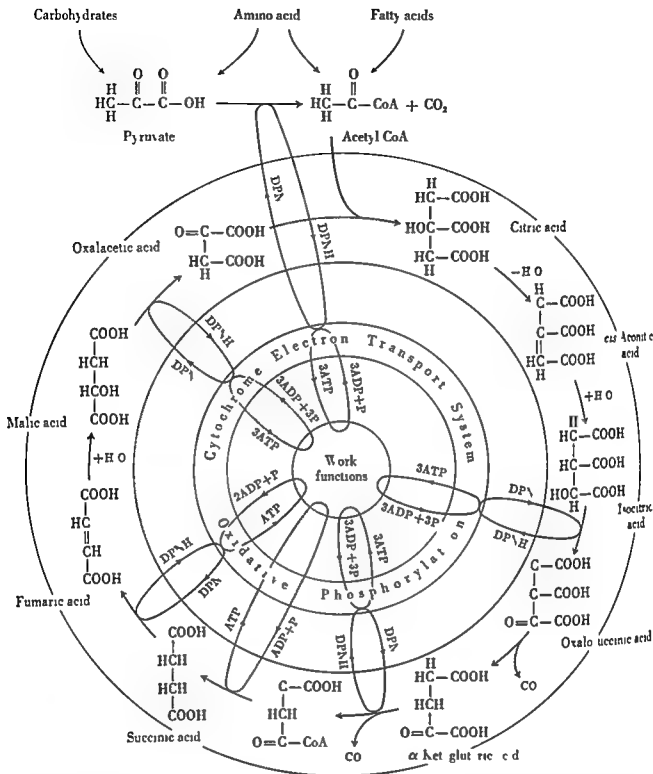


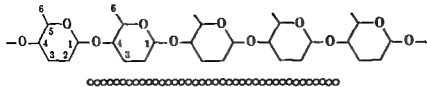
Fig 4 Citric acid cycle

The carbohydrates then undergo further metabolism independent of the process of photosynthesis.

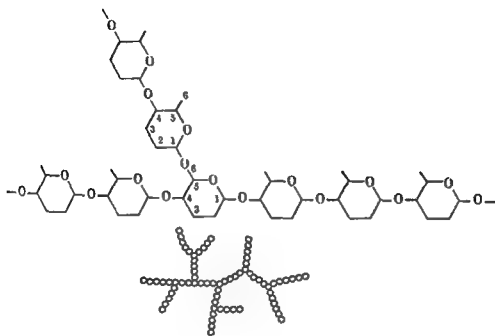
The glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate produced in the photosynthetic cycle gives rise to other carbohydrates as shown in the reactions in Fig 5.

When glucose (from photosynthesis) or fructose (from sucrose) and fructose (from sucrose or inulin) are degraded to obtain energy or to provide carbon skeletons for the synthesis of other compounds, the initial reaction involves a series of phosphorylated intermediates. This pathway of dissimilation (Fig

6) is referred to as glycolysis or the Embden Meyerhof Parnas pathway. Under anaerobic conditions appreciable quantities of ethanol accumulate and there is a net production of only a small amount of ATP for each mole of glucose converted to ethanol and carbon dioxide. Although many microorganisms can obtain sufficient energy by anaerobic processes to maintain their life cycle, higher plants cannot. Under anaerobic conditions the  $\text{DPNH}$  produced by the oxidation of phosphoglyceraldehyde to phosphoglyceric acid is re-oxidized by the cytochrome system and then utilized for



Amylose



Amylopectin

Fig 8.1

p bl f th apd decay a d l bl zat  
 of d dpl tr d S CELLULOSE  
 Pectin The gl et i dr dues f the  
 pet mp und appe t ar ed tly fr m the  
 gl ket by xdt f carb at m 6  
 d i es f th o fig rat f ca b n  
 t m 4 The m thyl est g p om f m  
 m th by t m thyl t E zymes b ng g  
 ab t the d g d t f p t cmp d a f  
 t k d O pet m thyl t e the  
 hyd ly f th e te l kages t yeld p t  
 l nd m th l Th th pect d p hyme e  
 l e the m lym r to gl t d nd d  
 g l t n d fhes m yme ur wid ly i  
 plant ue d n m gan m (see MICRO  
 biology) N t w thy the imp t th  
 p g f f he th h t step gr s  
 t lec firm th r lt of deg d  
 t f th p t omp nd th l l t ct  
 S FRUIT (N TANY) P m m  
 Ascorbic acid Th b t c lo ly r l t d  
 t the b hyd te d f n ly u e s l c  
 rre pl t b t y t has ly u e s l c  
 l d f t It m ynth e l y r l t d  
 F g S ASCORBIC ACID a h wn

# ORGANIC ACIDS

By rtu f th wide d str b tion in relatively  
 l rg qua tte th pl nt kingdom e eral  
 l ph tic a d ar efe d t coll tely the  
 pl nt id Thes clud the id in the f rm of  
 a d est for ample m late c rate i ci  
 t te t trat suc t x l t f mar te m  
 a n tat l tat x k togl t m a d glyco  
 l t The g c ds d ther salts tit te  
 b fle ing yst ms wh h und bt dly ar of im  
 m t nce m ntr lling the pH ( c d ty) f the  
 l l O g cid n tral e th eff ct f n x  
 pt ke of cat o F xampl wh po  
 t m n t te t ke up by a pl t a d the  
 n t er d d to mmo um th m s n ex  
 es of at m n th l l Ths b l a c d by th  
 ynth i f m o c d a o Th s th o ga ic  
 d c te t f a pl t g wn nitrate s s u ce  
 f n t o g n m l t m s that of a plant g own  
 with m m m alt a ce of n t gen  
 Functions of organic acids S e l f the pla m  
 d cc i te m d t th dat n of  
 etyl c e zyme A by th c tri id cycle B c u  
 m y k nd f o g n ms op te th t c a d



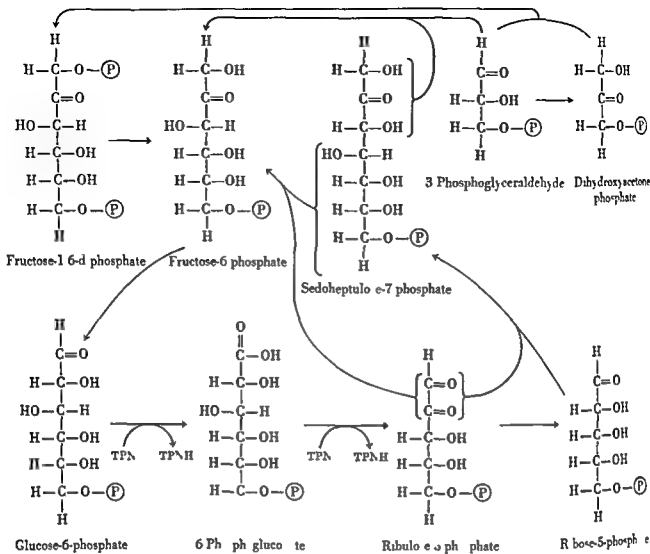
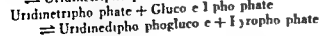
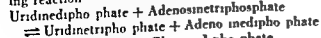
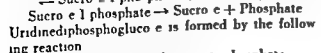
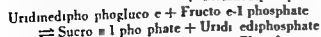
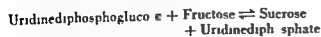


Fig 7 Pentose phosphate pathway

phosphorylated starch is hydrolyzed to maltose by the combined action of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  amylases. The  $\alpha$  amylases are specific for the hydrolysis of the 1,4-glycosidic linkages in the interior portions of the starch molecules and consequently rapidly lower the viscosity of a starch suspension producing dextrins as end products. The  $\beta$  amylase attacks starch molecules at the nonreducing ends cleaving off maltose units one at a time. In seeds which contain a high percentage of starch there is a severalfold increase in amylase activities during germination. See STARCH.

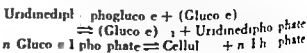
**Sucrose** In higher plants sucrose synthesis occurs by the following reactions



The conversion of sucrose to glucose and fructose is by a hydrolytic cleavage catalyzed by the enzyme **sucrase**. See SUCROSE.

**Pentoses and pentosans** Ribulose-5-phosphate and xylulose-5-phosphate occur as intermediates in the photosynthetic cycle whereas ribulose-5-phosphate and ribose-5-phosphate are intermediate in the pentose phosphate cycle. Ribose and xylulose can arise by the hydrolysis of their phosphate esters. Xylulose is isomerized to xylulose which further transforms into arabinose through the intermediate formation of uridine diphosphate and uridine diphosphate. However, there is no evidence that the free pentoses can serve as precursors for the formation of pentosans. In labeling experiments indicate that the pentosans are derived from hexose by loss of carbon atom 6. See CARBOHYDRATE.

**Cellulose** It appears that cellulose is synthesized by one or both of the following reactions



Enzyme that hydrolyze cellulose known as cellulase occur primarily in microorganisms and are



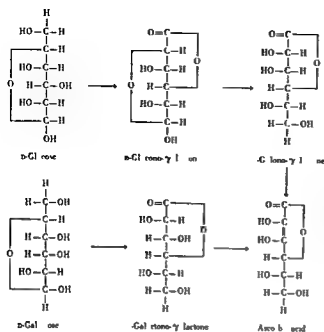
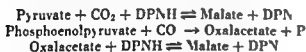


Fig. 9. Biosynthesis of ascorbic acid

cycle without the accumulation of large quantities of the intermediates it must be concluded that the accumulations that do occur such as malate in apples and citrate in tomatoes are incidental to the operation of the oxidative cycle. These accumulations may result from a block at one point in the cycle or from excessive cations present. All the acids listed above with the exception of oxalate and tartrate are in dynamic equilibrium with other plant constituents that is the pools of accumulated acids are undergoing metabolic turnover. For example a single administration of  $C^{14}$  labeled glucose to a tomato results in a rapid labeling of the citric acid without any net increase in the total citrate present. Then with time the label disappears from the citrate with no decrease in total citrate present.

Some of the organic acids which are intermediates in the citric acid cycle are also synthesized in significant quantities by other pathways. Malate synthesis occurs by the following reaction in which  $P_i$  represents inorganic orthophosphate:



Iso-citrate can be formed by a reversal of the isocitric dehydrogenase reaction:



Iso-citrate can then give rise to  $\beta$ -ketoisocitrate and citrate:

Oxalacetate and  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate can be produced by the deamination of the amino acids aspartic acid and glutamic acid respectively.

Tartaric acid and its salts accumulate in large quantities in grapes and are found in smaller quantities in the leaves of many plant species. The rate of synthesis and accumulation of tartrates is slow and further metabolism is extremely slow. The immediate precursors of tartaric acid are not known.

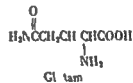
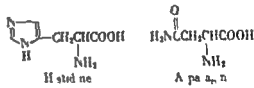
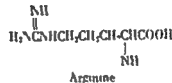
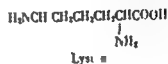
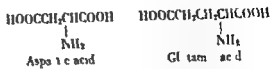
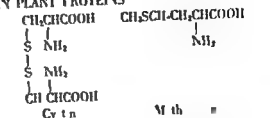
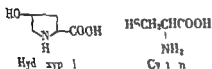
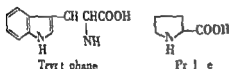
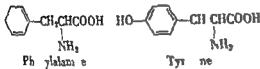
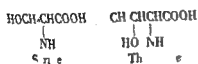
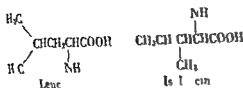
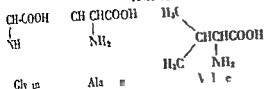
It is clear however that the closely related malic acid is not a precursor. Oxalate salts also accumulate in large quantities in some plants through oxidation of glyoxalate. Oxalate is metabolized further to carbon dioxide, formate or both at a very slow rate by most plant cells. The table gives an incomplete but representative listing of the occurrence of various organic acids in plants.

**Acid metabolism of the succulents.** In some species of plants there is not simply a low accumulation of organic acids but rather a large diurnal fluctuation in the total acid present. These fluctuations are characteristic of a group of plants known as succulents which are characterized by thickened spongy leaves and stems. Typical succulents occur in the families Cactaceae, Begoniaceae, Compositae and Crassulaceae; the genera *Bryophyllum* and *Sedum* of the Crassulaceae have been most extensively studied. The main features of the acid metabolism of succulents are: (1) a rapid increase (one- to fivefold) in total acid at night and an equally rapid decrease in daylight; (2) increase in the rate of acid formation brought about by low temperatures; (3) same intensity of light required to bring about a decrease in total acids as that required for photosynthesis; (4) a very low respiratory quotient ( $\text{CO}_2$  evolved/absorbed) less than 0.1 during the first hours of darkness; and (5) a concomitant disappearance of carbohydrates, particularly starch, as the acids appear. The low and sometimes negative respiratory quotient values suggested to early experimenters that carbon dioxide was a reactant in the formation of the acids (see PLANT RESPIRATION). Two kinds of evidence confirm this suggestion. First, the rate of acidification of succulent leaves in the dark is a function of the carbon dioxide concentration over the range 0–1%. Second,  $C^{14}$  labeled carbon dioxide is incorporated immediately and principally into the malic acid formed. By virtue of the earlier experiments in which the concentration of acid and carbohydrates was measured and of the later experiments with  $C^{14}$  labeled carbon dioxide.

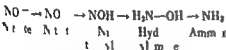
Organic acid content of various plant tissues

Tissue	Cit	Mal	Iso-cit	Oxal	Tar	Cr
L (mg/100 g dry leaf)						
Rh. balt.	31			143		0.5
Bryophyllum	4	166	13	5		4
A. col.						
I. baum.	3	68		3		0.06
T. m. t.	4	61		45		
Sr. h.	10	9		309		
V. l.	7	68		8		
F. u. t (mg/100 ml juice)						
V. l.						
Imm. t.	5					
M. t.		6				
Lemo.						
Imm. t.	3	44				
M. t.	106	9				
Appl. j. ce.	31	0.3				

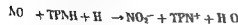
# AMINO ACIDS PRESENT IN PLANT PROTEINS



the form of amino acids. The path of synthesis of these amino acids is as follows:



At first, the enzyme catalyzes the formation of nitrite from nitrate. This is followed by the formation of nitric oxide, which is then converted to nitrous oxide. The final product is ammonia, which is then converted to amino acids.

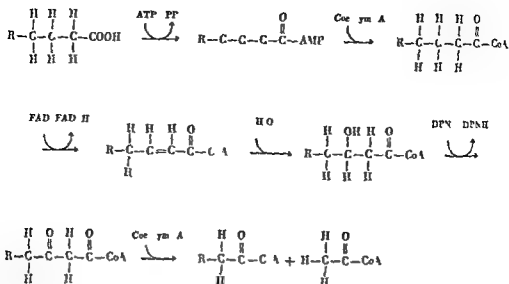


The reaction of nitric oxide with TPNH is catalyzed by the enzyme nitric oxide reductase. This enzyme is found in the cytoplasm of many bacteria and is also present in the mitochondria of some eukaryotic cells. The reaction is reversible and is coupled with the reduction of TPNH to TPN.

Significance of nitrogen from the atmosphere. Nitrogen is a major component of the atmosphere and is essential for life. It is used by plants to synthesize amino acids and nucleic acids. In the soil, nitrogen is converted to nitrate by bacteria, which can then be taken up by plants.

Ammonia is a major product of nitrogen fixation. It is used by plants to synthesize amino acids and nucleic acids. In the soil, ammonia is converted to nitrate by bacteria, which can then be taken up by plants. The reaction of ammonia with oxygen to form nitrate is catalyzed by the enzyme ammonia monooxygenase.

The reaction of ammonia with oxygen to form nitrate is coupled with the oxidation of TPNH to TPN. This reaction is catalyzed by the enzyme ammonia monooxygenase. The reaction is reversible and is coupled with the reduction of TPNH to TPN.

Fig 10  $\beta$  oxidation of fatty acids

## PRINCIPAL FATTY ACIDS OF PLANTS

Acid	Formula
Lauric	$\text{CH}_3-(\text{CH}_2)_{10}-\text{COOH}$
Myristic	$\text{CH}_3-(\text{CH}_2)_{12}-\text{COOH}$
Palmitic	$\text{CH}_3-(\text{CH}_2)_{14}-\text{COOH}$
Stearic	$\text{CH}_3-(\text{CH}_2)_{16}-\text{COOH}$
Arachidic	$\text{CH}_3-(\text{CH}_2)_{18}-\text{COOH}$
Palmitoleic	$\text{CH}_3-(\text{CH}_2)_5-\overset{\text{H}}{\underset{\text{H}}{\text{C}}}=\overset{\text{H}}{\underset{\text{H}}{\text{C}}}-(\text{CH}_2)_7-\text{COOH}$
Oleic	$\text{CH}_3-(\text{CH}_2)_7-\overset{\text{H}}{\underset{\text{H}}{\text{C}}}=\overset{\text{H}}{\underset{\text{H}}{\text{C}}}-(\text{CH}_2)_7-\text{COOH}$
Linoleic	$\text{CH}_3-(\text{CH}_2)_4-\overset{\text{H}}{\underset{\text{H}}{\text{C}}}=\overset{\text{H}}{\underset{\text{H}}{\text{C}}}-\text{CH}_2-\overset{\text{H}}{\underset{\text{H}}{\text{C}}}=\overset{\text{H}}{\underset{\text{H}}{\text{C}}}-(\text{CH}_2)_7-\text{COOH}$
Linolenic	$\text{CH}_3-\text{CH}_2-\overset{\text{H}}{\underset{\text{H}}{\text{C}}}=\overset{\text{H}}{\underset{\text{H}}{\text{C}}}-\text{CH}_2-\overset{\text{H}}{\underset{\text{H}}{\text{C}}}=\overset{\text{H}}{\underset{\text{H}}{\text{C}}}-\text{CH}_2-\overset{\text{H}}{\underset{\text{H}}{\text{C}}}=\overset{\text{H}}{\underset{\text{H}}{\text{C}}}-(\text{CH}_2)_7-\text{COOH}$
Ricinoleic	$\text{CH}_3-(\text{CH}_2)_8-\overset{\text{OH}}{\underset{\text{H}}{\text{C}}}-\text{CH}_2-\overset{\text{H}}{\underset{\text{H}}{\text{C}}}=\overset{\text{H}}{\underset{\text{H}}{\text{C}}}-(\text{CH}_2)_7-\text{COOH}$

## NITROGEN METABOLISM

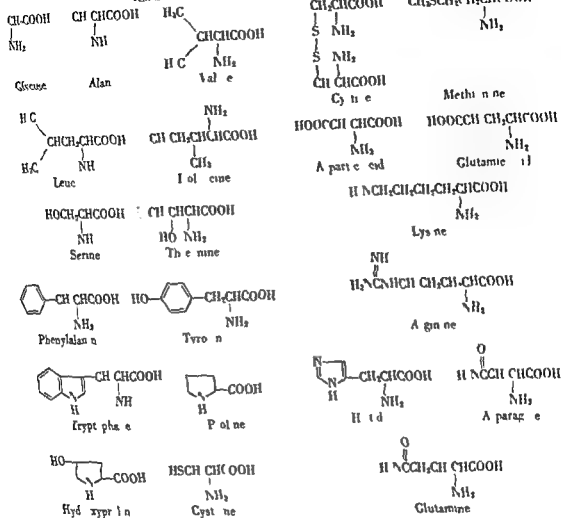
**Amino acids, amides, and proteins** The principal nitrogenous constituents of plants are proteins. Although there are many kinds of proteins in plants, they like all proteins are made up of a relatively small number of different kinds of amino acids condensed together through the elimination of a molecule of water between the amino group of one amino acid and the amino group of another. With the exception of proline and hydroxyproline, all of the amino acids which have been obtained from protein hydrolyzates are  $\alpha$ -amino acids. The  $\alpha$ -carbon atom is a center of asymmetry so that two optically active isomeric forms are possible for each amino acid. Only the L-amino acids have been found in protein molecules. In addition to the protein amino acids, many other amino acids occur

free or in simple organic compounds. Although some D-amino acids are known in biological material, the different kinds and quantities are much more limited than for the L-amino acids.

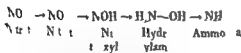
The carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen for the formation of amino acids in plants come from carbon dioxide and water by way of photosynthesis.

Soil nitrate is the principal source of nitrogen for higher plants (see NITROGEN CYCLE). The occurrence of nitrate in soil is the result of the microbial nitrification of the ammonia produced by the degradation of plant and animal residues. Nitrate is absorbed into the root of plant and in most species is transported as such to the aerial portions of the plant where it is reduced to ammonia. Root cells also are capable of reducing nitrate to ammonia and in some plants may fracture of the nitrogen transport out of the

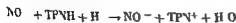
# AMINO ACIDS PRESENT IN PLANT PROTEINS



1 s t h f r m f a m i n t r o g n The p t h  
w y f r e d c h n i t r a t e t h g h s e i o f  
i o e l e c t r o n s



Nitrite red ta th zym at lyz g the fir t  
t p h s b o b t e d f o m N e n d f o m  
th u i m n y h g h p l t i t s m l b d o  
d a p t i n w h t n s f e r l t r s f r m T P N H

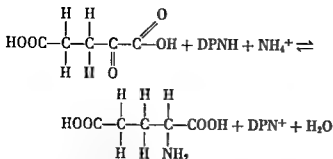


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n t i f r t h q u e m a t f l a n t f r m l y b d a t  
A l t h o g h t r e d t a d l y d y l m e e  
d u t a t i t b h e r v e d p l t  
x t r a t h e z y m e q u i r t h e h a a c t i z a  
t i w i t h t p e i t z y m a d m i t l n  
q m n t s.

S i g n i f i c a n t q u a n t i t i e s f i n t g e n g f r m t h  
a r a r e e d c e d t o m m a b y f r e e l i g b a c t e r i  
i t h s o l a d b y t h e f l h z o b w h i c h g w  
y m b i a w i t h t h l e g u m u p l a n t S L e c  
u m e S o i l m i c r o s t o l o g y

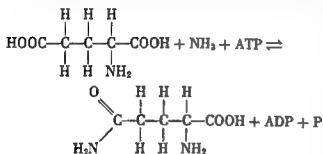
A m m o n i a r p t e d i n t o t h e g a n t r o  
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α k e t o a c i d s l a c t a t d p y r u t e t f r m  
g l t a m c i d p a r t u c d a d a l a n i n e r e p e c  
t i l y E p r m e n t w i t h N l a b e l e d m m i a  
h h w a t t h a m n o a d s a n d p r o t e i n s i  
p l a n t u d r g o c n t n t b e k d o n a d r e y t h e  
I s h e x p e r i m e n t g l u t a m i n e a d p r i a t  
a t h e f i t m n a i d s t b e c m f b e l d w i t h  
N The p r i n c i p a l r e a c t i o n f o r c o p o a t i g m  
m n n t m m u p p r t b t h t e t  
l y e d b y g l t a m d h y d n n

Th m n a d f r m e d b y d t m t o f  
α k e t o a c i d s t n f t l e m g o p b y  
t n m a t n e u t t h α k e t d t  
f r m t h e c a p o d m d Th e a  
m y d i f f n t a m n e y m l l o f w h i c h  
r q e p y d l p h p h t s n z y m P



line and hydroxyproline cannot be formed by transamination reactions. Proline is formed from glutamic acid by way of glutamic acid semialdehyde and pyrroline carboxylic acid. Hydroxyproline is formed by oxidation of proline. Higher plants are able to synthesize all the amino acids which they utilize in their metabolism. Some of the lower plants and some bacteria are not able to synthesize all the amino acids which they require and are therefore dependent upon plant and animal residues to supply the preformed.

Although ammonia is an intermediate in the metabolism of living cells, ammonium salts are extremely toxic if allowed to accumulate in the cell. Living organisms prevent the accumulation of ammonia by excreting it or by combining it into some innocuous compound. Higher plants incorporate ammonia into the amides glutamine and asparagine. Glutamine is synthesized by the following reaction:



The exact manner in which asparagine is formed is not known. See ASPARAGINE.

In seedlings, especially etiolated seedlings, a dominant feature of nitrogen metabolism is the formation of glutamine, asparagine, or both. This synthesis of amides is a result of the high level of ammonia produced during the enzymatic hydrolysis of the seed proteins and the utilization of the amino acids to supply energy and carbon skeletons for the synthesis of new cells in the seedling. As the seedlings develop and the level of ammonia drops, the amides gradually disappear as their nitrogen is utilized in the synthesis of other amino acids to be used in protein synthesis.

The prominent feature of the nitrogen metabolism of any growing cell is the synthesis of the cellular proteins. Because there may be as many as several thousand different kinds of proteins in a cell, it is obvious that protein synthesis in a rapidly growing cell is a result of very complex processes. Proteins may differ from one another in amino acid composition, in amino acid sequence, and in the three-dimensional folding of the long polypeptide chains. The characteristics are of course under

genetic control (see GENETICS). Some of the most interesting developments in biology in this century center around the discovery that the genetic material of cells consists of nucleic acids and of nucleoproteins and that the biosynthesis of proteins and nucleic acids is interdependent and simultaneous.

Proteins appear to be synthesized directly from amino acids by an energy-dependent (ATP) series of reactions. The first step in this series of reactions is the activation of the amino acids. There is probably a separate activating enzyme for each amino acid.



in which  $\text{PP}_i$  indicates inorganic pyrophosphate. In subsequent steps the activated amino acid is transferred to an acceptor or carrier which further transfers the activated amino acid into the polypeptide chain that is to become the finished protein molecule. Although it is not yet possible to state exactly the point of interdependence of this series of reactions with nucleic acid synthesis, it is under investigation in many laboratories throughout the world. The proteins which are enzymatically active are presumably synthesized by the same pathway as other proteins. However, special interest attaches to the synthesis of enzymes because of the interesting problem of the amino acid sequence and the configuration of the polypeptide chain at the active site of the protein.

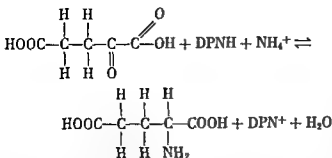
In most tissues the bulk of the protein consists of the enzymatically active proteins which catalyze the reactions characteristic of living cells. In seed, however, the bulk of the proteins present appears to serve the function of storage proteins to be utilized as a source of amino acid by the young seedling before it becomes established in the soil. See SEED (BOTANY). These reserve proteins are hydrolyzed by the action of proteolytic enzymes present in the seeds. In many seeds there is a many-fold increase in this proteolytic activity during germination (see PLANT GROWTH REPRODUCTION PLANT). As mentioned earlier, this rapid degradation of proteins to amino acids leads to the production of large quantities of ammonia which become incorporated into glutamine and asparagine. See AMIDE ACID AMINO ACIDS.

An interesting observation relates to the protein metabolism of excised leaves. The total protein content of a mature leaf remains constant or declines slowly as the leaf ages. After the excision of the leaf, there is a rapid decline of the protein level. This decline is checked by the induction of adventitious roots on the leaf. See LEAF (BOTANY). These experiments suggest that the protein metabolism of leaves is partially under the control of some factor or factors produced by root cells. See ROOT (BOTANY). Such observations are of general interest because of the possible connection with the normal decline and senescence of mature leaves and fruit.

The infection of and multiplication of virus in plants is a special case of interest in its own right.

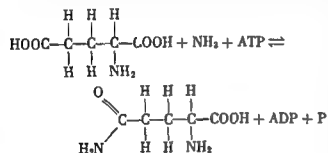






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The infection of and multiplication of viruses in plants is a special case of the synthesis of intrinsic interest. In total

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## ant morphogenesis

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 r u t e r l g t h g e i b l e e x p r e s s i o n s of  
 g z g c h a r a t i f f e a t e r y l e e l

**Correlation** Th g e n e r a l t r m f the r e  
 t a h p m t h p a r t s f g m e s p  
 l l y d r i g t d e v l p m e n t M t b o d y p a t  
 r o t b o t h e m r t e t h f r m d o e s n t  
 i l t e g r a d l y d e v l p m e n t l m a e  
 s o e p a t g r w f a t t h n the p a t o r  
 o d m e f t e t h n a t h E h e e t h  
 e l t h p m n g g r o t h t r m f a r l y  
 a t t s t h f r m c h a n g a r g l r and  
 p e d s i b l f a h S o m e t i m the p h y l a b a  
 f r r l a n i e d e n t F o r m p l f r m l  
 b d m y h b t g r e t l y r i d t h g r w th f  
 b d b l t

**Polarity** l l m t l l m s a n a p  
 p d r i g d e l p m t a d t w e n d b m  
 d h t o o t d h o o t h g h p l a t Th  
 m b e r y l e v n i b e f r i z e d g g i t  
 l f l s e d n t g e t P l a t y a l a p  
 u p h y s i l p e s l n m y e  
 u d e d g a d e t r t e f m t a b o l c  
 p o e f m o d o f t h v t t h t h e  
 M o v m t f u b t e s m a l b e p l r l t h a  
 b u g t d t h b e l t l f t a r n  
 l d p l y t I m a g m t f  
 m t a l b y e t r i f i n h b e e n f o d t  
 h g n p l r n d t m y b e e d b y  
 t h g n

**Symmetry** Th g m t f l t e a l t e  
 t a d t h m p o l a n t r r g l  
 b t h p r r n f y m m t r y f m r t  
 M o s t p l t e r y c a l l d t h e d t l t f  
 l d t h m ( p h y l t y ) s l l d  
 p The p t f t h m t f l s m v b  
 p p t h l d d g d n p a l ( l t  
 t ) s h p l f l l t d f i t e l  
 h h h m p l t h m t l l t h p t  
 n t h

W h the a h z o t l the p p d  
 t d e s l l y d f t ( d n t l t )  
 The t t t h g h t d l f t d l l y  
 m m g o f h t h e ( b i t l y m m e t )  
 O g n y m m e t r y f l p t h t h t o f  
 r y a l t h h t h m t m b m p d

**Differentiation** A n p i c u f a c t f l e v e l  
 m n t i t a t d r g r t r l e g r t f t h r  
 g m l e c m d i f f e r t f r m n a t e r A n x  
 a m p l o f h d i f f t a t i n a t l t w e n t h  
 t w e n d o f t h p l r a x i D e l y m t i n h i g h e r  
 p l a n t i a c c m p n i e d l t p r g e s a p l a r  
 a c e f d i t i r g a n — r o o t i m l a e s f l w  
 r f r u i t a d e e d — t h e t w a r l g f l i t i n  
 f l b o r w i t h i n t h p l a n t C r w i t h a d d i f f e r e n t i a  
 t g e n e r a l l y p o c e e d t g t h e r l t h r e a c c e s  
 w h e r e e o c c u r s w t h u t h e t h e r I n t h e c o r r e  
 ( t h e l i f e ) l e f a r g a n i m d i f f e n t i a l c h a n g e s  
 c e a r i n a d e f i n i t e e r i e s f t g

I n t l d f f r t a t r i m g t i e a n d  
 m g e l l d i a g d e l p m n a r a m a r k e d a  
 i e t l f m S m t i m h a d i f f r n a n  
 l t r a e d t a p a r t l a s c e l l d n a w h t h e  
 t w d g h t r c e l l a r e n i k e I n m r p m t  
 r g a m d i f f e t t n p o c e e d a a t o f  
 h d i t u l t i m t e s t h p e e r p o i n t  
 o f o r i g i n o f t h e d i f f e r e n c e s i s h a r d t l o c t e P a r  
 t l m t e r n f a t l t r u c t u r a l d f f  
 h e a n h r e d t r y b a t b t a r t e n m o d f i e d y  
 f a c t r s i n t h e i n t e r a l o r e t e r n l e n i m e n t  
 F w i t h i n a g l e e l l t h e r t e n a d  
 l l e d e g r e d d i f f e r e n t a m n g t p a r t T l  
 f a c t t h t e l l l l y h a e t h a m n m b e r f  
 c h m m e s a t h e f t i e d g g ( r a m p l e  
 m l t p l e f t h e s e ) a g e t t h t h e g t c n  
 t s i o n o f r y c e l l s l i k e t h t a l l t W h y  
 d f f e n c e h o l d t e a m n g t h e m t h e f o r e  
 e e m t b e d u e t h e r t d i f f e r t e x p e t o e x  
 t i f a t r t c h a n g i n t l c y t p l m f i l e

**Physiological differences** b e t w e e p a r t f t h e  
 p l t a r e m m C e l l f i t h r t a r n a l l e t  
 t h e i g a d e r t s t h e n e e a y b  
 t e s d m t g e t t h e m f m t h e h o o t M a n y  
 l i z e d p h y l g l d f f n a r e m n t n e d  
 b e c e f t h m p m e b i l i t y f t h e e l l m e m  
 b a t b t e s p o d d i t h e l l

**Regeneration** Th a b i l i t y o f m a n y r g n m  
 u l l y d g t h l d e v l p m e n t l t g e  
 t e p l c i l t p r t i d i s t i n c t p h n m n  
 o f m r p h e s C t g f r m t h e t e m f m n  
 p l t w l l p d o t f p l c d n a f a b l e  
 i o m e t

T h o g h t h p t e y b e c m p o g r e s e l y r  
 t t e d n m l a t h e d d u l m t r t m y  
 m i a l m t d e f i t l y a p l t l n m a y a s  
 m t r p l t l l w h h c b e d e d b y  
 h m a l m t d d g a w l l t h e m e r  
 t m a l l g r w g p t f m w h c h w h l p l t  
 m y b e f r m e d S m p l a t s n t u l l y e p o d c  
 t h m e l e b y m l l p l t l e t p d e d f m m  
 g l l f l s

**Atypical growth** The g a n z i g n t r l n d r  
 w h h p l t d l p m y m e t m b k d w n  
 l l g t h p d c t f g l l t m  
 d t h a b m l f r m O f p r l m r p h o  
 g t i t t t e g a l l f r m d m p l t s e c  
 t t t t t m u l t e s p e c i l l y f o m  
 t h e y p d w p s Th m l a n u a l l y f a v r y

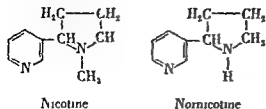
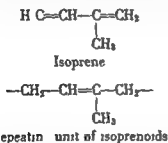


Fig 11 Structural formulas of nicotine and nornicotine

lates in the leaves. Very little is known of the biogenesis of the many other alkaloids. The determination of the manner of their synthesis, of the conditions under which they arise, and of their possible function in plants would be a significant contribution to plant metabolism. See ALKALOID.

#### TERPENE METABOLISM

**Oils, resins and carotenoids.** The terpenes and their derivatives may all be considered as being derived from isoprene. This group of substances includes essential oils, resins, the carotenoid pigments, phytol, and rubber. Probably all plants are able to synthesize some of the carotenoid pigments.



and phytol (the  $\text{C}_{60}$  alcohol present in chlorophyll). The ability to produce significant quantities of essential oils and resins, however, is much more restricted in the plant kingdom, perhaps to 2000 of 400,000 species. The oils and resins are produced by specialized cells or groups of cells and may either accumulate in the cells or be secreted into resin ducts. See SECRETORY STRUCTURES, PLANT.

**Carotenoids.** Deposited as plastid pigments occur in roots, stem, leaves, flowers, and fruit. In green leaves, the carotenoids are associated with chlorophyll in the chloroplasts (see CAROTENOID, CHLOROPHYLL). The carotenoids are synthesized in the tissue in which they are found and transport does not seem to occur. Acetate, as acetyl CoA, appears to be the precursor of all the isoprenoid compounds. The intermediate steps probably involve first the formation of acetoacetyl CoA, then the formation of the 6-carbon compound  $\beta$ -methyl  $\beta$ -hydroxy glutaryl CoA, which is converted into a 5-carbon compound that can react with it to form compounds containing 10, 15, 20, 30, or 40 carbon atoms. See FAT AND OIL, EDIBLE; FAT AND OIL, NONEDIBLE; RESIN.

**Rubber.** Rubber occurs in hundreds of species of plants and may constitute up to 20% of the dry weight of the plant. It occurs as small particles suspended in an aqueous serum. This suspension or latex occurs in and is formed in specialized

cells or vessels. The latex, which is obtained by tapping the *Hevea* tree, contains all of the enzymatic apparatus necessary for incorporating radioactive acetate into rubber. The repeating unit in the chemical structure of rubber is isoprene.

Although the deposit of large quantities of rubber in the latex vessels of plants represents a possible source of energy for the plant, there is no evidence that it does actually function as a nutrient food. See RUBBER.

#### OTHER METABOLITES

**Tannins.** The tannins are a group of astringent substances apparently formed by the condensation of phenolglucinol and its derivatives or by the condensation of gallic acid, digallic acid, ellagic acid, caffeic acid, and quinic acid. Although the tannins have become useful items of commerce, for example, in leather tanning, little is known of their biogenesis and their function in plant metabolism is unknown. See TANNIN.

**Anthocyanins and flavones.** The water-soluble pigments of plants consist almost entirely of anthocyanins and flavones. These pigments occur largely as glycosides and yield on hydrolysis a sugar and a 2-phenylbenzopyrylium derivative (anthocyanidin) or a sugar and a 2-phenylbenzopyrone (flavone) derivative. A great variety of anthocyanins exist. These differ from one another by the degree of substitution on the  $\beta$  ring by the total number of hydroxyl groups, by the degree of methylation of these hydroxyl groups, and by the number (1 and 2) and kinds of sugar residues linked to the anthocyanidin by the glycosidic linkage. Similarly, a wide variety of flavone pigments occur in plants. These pigments (Fig. 12) are generally produced

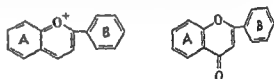


Fig. 12. Structural formulas of 2-phenylbenzopyrylium and 2-phenylbenzopyrone.

by plants under high light intensity and low nitrogen and phosphorus supply. In some cases, however, pigment production is independent of light and may occur in roots or in etiolated seedlings. Although the chemistry of these pigments is understood, little is known of their biogenesis and nothing of their metabolic function. See ANTHOCYANIN; FLAVONE; GLUCOSIDE; see also PLANT PHYSIOLOGY.

[J. E. A.]  
**Bibliography.** J. Bonner, *Plant Biochemistry*, 1950; M. Dixon and F. C. Welb, *Enzymes*, 1958; J. S. Fruton and S. Summons, *General Biochemistry*, 2d ed., 1958; O. H. Gaebler (ed.), *Enzymes: Units of Biological Structure and Function*, 1956.



specific shape and internal structure which vary with the particular insect and the plant species. Substances introduced by the insect or formed from the larva hatching from its egg evidently have a very definite morphogenetic effect. Certain rather formless plant galls, the crown galls produced by the attack of various bacteria, have some resemblance to animal cancers.

The most extreme case of disorganization occurs in tissue cultures where single cells or formless masses of tissue continue to grow without developing into an organism.

**Ecological factors** Various factors in the organism itself or in its environment have been found to be important in the determination of its form and structure. Since most plants are stationary they are in general more susceptible to environmental influences than are animals which can move from unfavorable to favorable surroundings. Some of the more important external and internal factors are discussed in the following paragraphs.

**Water** This is of special importance in plants. In relatively dry soil the cuticle of a particular species tends to be heavier and the tissues more woody and made up of smaller cells. This is now thought to be a direct effect of water shortage on differentiation. In plants which can grow with their shoots either in air or submersed in water, the differences in development and structure under the two environments are very marked.

**Temperature** An important effect of temperature on plants has been found in the early growth of the seedling. If sprouting seeds of grains and some other plants are exposed to relatively low temperatures the early developmental stages are passed through rapidly. Seeds thus treated when placed under normal conditions produce the final mature state of the plant much earlier than untreated ones. By this process called vernalization winter wheat will grow to maturity as soon as spring wheat.

**Light** This factor is of particular morphogenetic importance in plants. Vegetative development is affected by intensity of light. Low intensities in some cases producing spindly or etiolated growth. The quality of light is also influential. The red end of the spectrum tends in many cases to stimulate growth of reproductive structures and the blue end differentiation and vegetative growth.

Important in the production of floral organs is the duration of exposure to light or the photoperiod. Where this is relatively long in relation to the dark interval flowering is stimulated in long day plants. In short day species however flowering occurs only when the daily photoperiod is relatively short and alternates with a long uninterrupted dark period. The factors involved in the transformation of the vegetative to the flowering state are not all well understood but the production and transfer of specific substances which influence differentiation are probably involved.

**Mechanical factors** Stresses and strains of various sorts have some importance in development. Gravity through its effect on the distribution of substances affecting form influences various geotropic orientations in plants. A tree swayed by air currents tends to have its widest diameter in the plane of sway. A tree guyed firmly by cables will not grow in diameter as fast as one that is unsupported.

**Chemical substances** Chemical factors of many kinds affect development. Sometimes the result is very specific and radical as when a teazel plant grown in soil of high nitrate content develops a much twisted stalk instead of the straight one formed in ordinary soil. The relative amount of substances may also be important. Thus plant in which the ratio of carbohydrates to nitrogen is high will tend to produce flowers and fruit but such plants will usually form only vegetative organs when this ratio is low.

**Hormones and growth substances** Certain more complex chemical substances especially the chemical messengers or hormone profoundly affect development in plants. Various substances have been found in plants which control development. Most notable is auxin, indoleacetic acid which has various effects. It stimulates or influences cell wall elongation particularly in the early stages of development and thus plays a role in most of the bendings or tropisms of plants made in response to gravity and light. It stimulates root development, cambial activity and the growth of seedling fruit. It may inhibit the formation of the cork (abscission) layer that causes leaves and fruits to drop off. Auxin in a terminal bud prevents or retards the growth of buds below it for a certain distance from the apex and thus affects the branch system of the plant. It is involved in the formation of crown gall tumors. Many of the effects may also be produced by various synthetic substances chiefly other organic acids.

**Grafts and chimeras** In plant chimeras the tissues of two individuals may be intimately combined either naturally or artificially. The two outer cell layers of a plant may be derived from tomato for example and the remainder from nightshade or vice versa. These are related but quite dissimilar species and the contribution of each to the form of leaf, flower and fruit may thus be determined. No genetic union is produced and the cells formed by the chimera will be identical with those of the species that provides the layer of cells just under the epidermis.

**Hereditary factors** Many single genes have been found that control the form of the body of its part. The shape of leaves, flowers and fruits in many plants are examples of form that are genetically controlled. Such genes evidently control the relative rates of growth in various directions. Where there are changes with size genes for size will evidently have an indirect effect on form. Genes that check growth at particular embryological stage will have

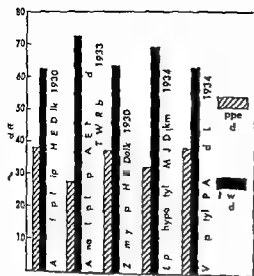


Fig 3 C p t p c tog l up  
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g e o t p m b a n t b e t e l y l u a t d

Plag tropic structure such a lateral tem  
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t a i e d b y t h e a r i o u s o r g a n s v e r y l i k l a  
m a t e r i a t i n f a m p o t e r e p n e t a n u m b e r  
o f s t i m u l i i l d i n g g e o t r p e c t i m u l a t i

Electrotropisms G w i l l o n t i e r p n e t o  
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e l e c t r o p c u r v a t e s t h i s d i c a t e t i m a f t e r  
t m l a t w l e m e r t w a a p p l i e d m m b e l w  
t h e a p e x I n t h e r a n g e o f 5-30 m a p p l i e d f r 2  
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t h e r r t t r e n g t h D e c a p i t a t e d a n l a u x i n d e p l e t e d  
m l e o p t i l e d e n t r p n d t d r e c t c u r r n t A d d i t i o n a l  
i n d i r e c t e v i d e n c e i m p l i c a t e t h a t e l e c t r o t r o p i c  
c u r v a t u r e o f t e m a r e m e d i a t e d b y g r o w t h  
m e c h m i n w h i c h r e q a u x i n

Aux d p l e t e d c o l e p t i l w h i c h h a e 3-1 d l e a  
t a t a d ( I A A ) a p p l i e d t t h p l e n d w i l l  
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t o n I A A n t r a t i n t a m a x i m m ( 0.8 m g / l i t e r ) h b e e n d e m m t r a t e d t h a t  
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m t i d t r i b u t e n I A A w h h i r g h t a l t  
b y l a t e r a l t n p t A t a t e f p l a t y n t h p l a n t  
t e r t h e r t h e f l w o f t e r n a l l y a p p l i e d  
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Thigmotropisms C u r a t e p e t o m e c h  
a t i m u l a t i n e c a l l e d t h g m t r o p i s m  
W h A t c l e o p t i o r t o l d e d i n g o  
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t h e p d b y b d g t w a d t h e s t i m u l e d  
d B e a s e s c h r e s p n d n t o c u i n c o l e  
p t l s d p l e t e d f a x i n t h e s e c u r v a t u r e p  
p r e t h y s l e d f f e t i a l g o w t h a t e s a u e d

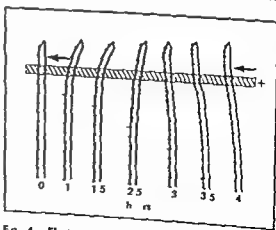


Fig 4 Elect p r v t s f A c l p l i

ome means of amplification is necessary to account for the differences in auxin concentration. Three possible mechanisms could be involved in the attainment of the asymmetry of auxin distribution.

The first mechanism requires the more effective photodestruction of auxin on the lighted side. According to the original observation made by F. W. Went, doses of light which induced the first positive phototropic curvature caused the total auxin production to be lowered from 100 to 84% (Photodestruction of auxin *in vitro* also has been demonstrated). The auxin content of the lighted side apparently is lowered to 27% (compared with 50% in a dark control), whereas in the shaded side the content apparently increased to 57%. In other experiments the ratio has been reported to be as low as 11 to 89. Thus, although it is apparent that photodestruction of auxin may be involved in phototropic curvature to some extent, differential destruction of auxin by light presumably does not function as an amplification mechanism. It still remains important to explain how lateral transport of auxin can be effected.

The transport of auxin against a concentration gradient requires an oriented force. Because auxin is an acid which will migrate toward the positive pole in an electrical field, the possibility of such functional electrical polarity has been proposed. It is known that unilateral illumination by white light causes the extreme apex of the *Avena* coleoptile to establish a transverse electrical polarity such that the lighted side becomes electronegative to the shaded side. Such polarity would cause the auxin to be transported to the positive and shaded side. It has been shown that transversely applied direct current can induce lateral transport of auxin. In positive phototropism, this viewpoint is further supported by the fact that externally applied electrical fields can increase or decrease light-induced bending depending upon the polarity of the electrical stimulation. Lateral transport of auxin caused by the photoinduced transverse electrical polarities remains as a possible but not the only explanation of positive phototropic curvature.

It is reasonably well established that visible light alters auxin synthesis in various plants. The extreme apex of the coleoptile is the site of auxin synthesis. Thus, it is possible that the unequal distribution of auxin is brought about by an asymmetric auxin synthesis. All that is required is more effective destruction or inhibition of an enzyme or cofactor required for the synthesis of auxin in the illuminated side (see ENZYME). This would allow the auxin precursor to accumulate on the lighted side to such an extent that it would rapidly diffuse to the shaded side where it could be converted to active auxin. Such a sequence would decrease the auxin concentration on the illuminated side and increase the auxin concentration on the shaded side, resulting in positive curvature. The evidence which supports this conceptual model is indirect.

Because roots normally grow beneath the surface of the soil, there is very little functional significance

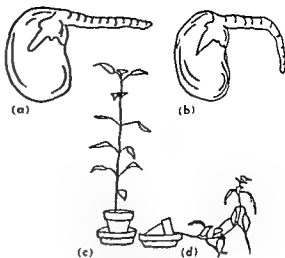


Fig. 2. Post- and negative geotropism. (a) A bean seedling whose primary root has been marked at equal intervals and placed in a horizontal position in a moist chamber. (b) Same seedling 24 hours later. Bending occurs the way of elongation. (c) A plant of *Ipomoea* in an upright position. (d) A plant which has been tilted on its side. In the negative geotropic response to stimulation of gravity codes, especially an upward curvature of the hypocotyl. (From G. M. Smith et al. *A Textbook of Geobotany*, 5th ed. Macmillan, 1953).

cance of the phototropic responses of the organs. It seems reasonably certain that an asymmetric distribution of auxin is essential for phototropism of root, but it is not clear how such lateral distribution is brought about. Furthermore, the auxin to growth linkage remains relatively obscure.

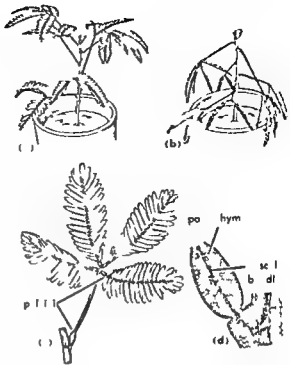
**Geotropism.** The curvature response of plant components when they are placed in the horizontal position is called geotropism. Primary roots bend toward the force of gravity; hence are positively geotropic (Fig. 2). Shoots or stems bend upward and away from the force of gravity and thus are negatively geotropic. Geotropic curvatures are brought about by unequal rates of elongation in the upper and lower halves of the organ. As in phototropism, the unequal rates of growth are in turn dependent upon asymmetrical distribution of auxin. Because a direct chemical effect of a change in the direction of the force of gravity is most unlikely, the problem of lateral transport has occupied the major share of attention.

In negative geotropism, most of the available information indicates that transverse movement of auxin is indeed accomplished. A sample of such data is shown in Fig. 3. Only fragmentary evidence contradicts this viewpoint. Elucidation of the mechanism required for the lateral transport of auxin again has paramount significance. Several possibilities have been suggested.

Structures which are negatively geotropic establish a transverse electrical polarity when they are placed in the horizontal position. The lower side becomes electropositive to the upper side. Such polarity is established before the unequal distribution is possible; the polarity is long before

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b t 2 t 15 mm/ S m e d d te  
h th rm m h m a f t al m m  
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B t y 5 th d M m l l 1953)

**leaf See PLANT GROWTH PLANT HORMONE PLANT PHYSIOLOGY**

**B b l o g p h y** P Boy en Jen en G th hor  
m t pl t s 1936 A C Leopold A x i s  
d pl t g outh 1955 F Sk m (ed) Pla t  
G u th S b t a ces 1951 F W We t d k V  
Th mann Phyt ho m s 1937

**Plant names**

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fa tory f e t f i c p u p e

M y f th t f i name g nated com  
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( k ) Rosa ( x ) nd l ( o l t ) Th e  
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f t ce n m ou pe c i e oaks f e n  
f let l ch ca tw m ry to d d ad  
j c t e s t de i g n te th diff ent pec s Som



by auxin. It is known that mechanical stimulation can inhibit or prevent negative geotropism and positive phototropism and that such stimulation induces a transverse electrical polarity in the *Avena coleoptile*. The stimulated side becomes electropositive to the opposite side. Thus the assumption is that an asymmetric distribution of auxin is implicated in thigmotropism and that such distribution is mediated by lateral transport to the electronegative side. Neither of these assumptions has been verified.

**Haptotropism** Some plants classified as non-climbers have ordinary structures such as the petiole, leaf tip or specialized tentacles that are sensitive to contact stimulation. It appears that growth of the cells on the contacted side is inhibited whereas the cells on the opposite side continue to grow. This combination results in a sharp curvature and the plant structures grow around the object which was contacted. Curvatures of this type are defined as haptotropism.

**Traumatotropism** The curvature of plant organs toward or away from a wound or an injured area is known as traumatotropism. Most curvatures of this type are positive; the direction of bending is toward the wound. The responses in stems and roots are commonly explained as being induced to a large extent by interference with the mechanisms for the distribution of auxin. Additional factors which likely are involved to a lesser extent are the interference of the upward translocation of food factors and the possible destruction of auxin by substances released from the wounded cells.

**Hydrotropism** The growing of roots toward wetter regions in the soil is called hydrotropism. This type of response can be demonstrated by growing the roots of certain plants in a moist porous material in a shallow tray with a wire mesh bottom. The roots first grow downward and through the wire mesh. They then bend back away from the dry air below and toward the moist air. In order for this to happen the hydrotropic stimulus must overcome the effects of the geotropic stimulus.

**Chemotropism** The growth response of plant structures to chemical compounds in the environment is defined as chemotropism. The tubes of some pollen grains when allowed to germinate on nutrient agar in which pieces of pistil have been embedded will grow toward the pieces of pistil. It is presumed that substances which attract the pollen tubes are diffusing from the pistils.

**Nastic movements** Curvatures or movements caused by external forces but whose direction is determined by the internal structure of the responding plant system are called nastic movements.

**Epinasty** In epinasty the leaves and stems always tend to curve downward regardless of the orientation of the stimulus. For example, in the stems of *Tradescantia* when the lateral branches are in the vertical position, auxin is transported only along the dorsal side. When the branches are

in the horizontal position, auxin is also transported along the ventral side. Thus epinastic curvature appears to be due to the action of gravity which causes the asymmetrical transport of auxin. This response is comparable to geotropism except that the auxin accumulates on the morphologically determined upper side. The horizontal position of lateral branches is attained as an equilibrium position when the geotropic auxin distribution is equal and opposite to the plagiotropic distribution.

**Nyctinasty** Nyctinastic movements are the induced by changes in temperature and illumination. This combination of stimuli, both of which are more intense during the daytime, causes some flowers to open in the morning and close again at night. The sleep movements of certain leaves are generally included in this category. Most likely such movements of flowers are caused by unequal growth rates on opposite sides of the petal, but the movements of leaves are dependent on changes of turgor (water pressure) in the pulvini (enlarged areas at the base of some kinds of leaves and leaflets). Frequently it is difficult to determine which form of energy is the primary stimulus, but in some instances the individual causative factor can be implicated. For example, before the petals of crocus or tulip are completely expanded (mature) they will open when illuminated and close again when darkened, even when kept at constant temperature. This type of response is defined as photonastic curvature. Similarly, at constant light intensity, these petals will manifest thermotaxis; that is, they will open in warm air and close in cold air.

**Haptonasty** The movement of marginal tentacles of the leaves of sundew plants in response to contact by an insect are known as haptonastic curvatures (see INSECTIVOROUS PLANTS). The insect is hereby brought into contact with the smaller central tentacles and ultimately trapped. Similarly, in the Venus flytrap, contact stimulation causes the leaf blade to fold at about the midrib and to come together to trap the insect. Haptonastic movements are also shown by stamens of some species in the plant families Berberidaceae and Compositae and by stigmas of the genera *Nivalus* and *Strobilanthes*.

**Tactic movements** Movements of motile organisms and free parts of nonmotile plants in response to external stimuli are called tactic movements.

**Phototaxis** These are oriented responses of such plants or plant parts as gamete spores, algae, and fungi to stimulation by directional illumination (phototactic movement). Generally, these organisms swim by the use of their flagella and move toward light of low intensity (see ALGAE, FUNGI). The positive phototaxis. When the light intensity is very high, however, the movement frequently is directed away from the light (negative phototaxis). The plasmodia of slime molds (*Myxomycetes*) move away from light by means of their pseudopodial action. See MYXOMYCETES.

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 B i o l o g y P A N T A N A T O Y

Plant physiology  
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wh h s t a b y e t e d The t d y f t l e e f f e c t o f e n  
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 g y r l a p w i t h t h f e l d o f p l a n t e c l g y a  
 b o r d r i n e d m a i n f k w l e d g e w h i c h i f t n  
 c a l l e d p h y l g a l l g y

Th e f f e t f g t f a t t r a p the p h y l o g y  
 o f p l a t s a r e u n d e r i m p l i e d e n i l e r a t i o n w l n e v e r  
 t h e s a m e p r o c e s t d i e d c m p a r a t i v e l y f r t w  
 d f i n t p e c e o f p l a t r e e n d f e r e n t a s e s  
 t i e s o f the a m p D f l e e n e s i n p h y l g y  
 b e t w e e n p e c i e s a r e a s m h r f l e c t n f t h r  
 g e n t d f l c e s a r e t h r m r l d f l e

e c e s i n e x t r a c t m p h l g y G e n e t i c d f f r c  
 p h y l g y a r e f i n m u c h m r e i t l e t h a n  
 m r p h l g l d f f e r e n c e s v a r i e f the a m  
 s p e c e i n d i t m h b l e m r p h l g c l l y r n e a r l y  
 s f i d f f e r t a m k e d d e g r e e t l p h y  
 o l g y

I n e t g t n s f the m e c h a n i m w h e r e l y p f o  
 g e t c f a c t r s — t h e g e s f the h m s a m e —  
 i n f l u e n c e p h y s i o l o g a l p r o c e s e s i n l m p e c i  
 p b g t t h m e t a b o l p a t h w a y w i t h i l l  
 a n d t o t h p a t t e r f e z y m t i c c t i t y w h i c h  
 t o l h p a t h w a y T h s u b d i o n f b i l g y  
 o f t e c a l l e d p h y l g i a l g e n e t N h r p

b d a r y b e d a w n h w e b e t w e e n t h s  
 r e a l m o f k w l e d g d the r e a l m o f p l a t p h y l  
 g y  
 A s t m t e r l t e x t s b e t w e e n the c e l l l a r  
 i n s u r f a p l a n t d t h p r o c e s w h i h o c r  
 i t Th e l t o h p i a d l The o r g n  
 a d t i u e s f a p l a n t r i g a t a r l t f  
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 p h y l g i l p e e s O c e m a t a l e d h w

e r the g a z a t i f a l l t h l l a r  
 t r u c t e f a g e t s a o g m y h m  
 m k e d e f f i s n t h m n r n w h e t u g  
 p h y s i g l p c e e s p o e d w i t h n t P r o c e s  
 a d t r c t e a n p a b l e f a c t f the p h e m  
 e n f g w t h n p l a s P H O T O S Y N T H E S I S  
 P A N T M I N E R A L N U T R I T I O N O F P L A N T W A T E R R E  
 L A T I O N S O F P L A T G R O W T H P L A T H O R M O E S  
 P L A N T M E T O L I S I P L A T R E S P I R A T I O N [ B S M ]

Plant respiration  
 A c h m i l p o e s s w h e b y l g p t p l m  
 l l k d w n t a o g u b s t e w i t h t h e r  
 l f g y w h l s e d o s m t a b l c  
 i t e s I n n t a t t p h t y t h e s w h t  
 l i g h t ( d t ) e g y i h g e d t h m l  
 g y t h t b d i g a n c m l l e p  
 t c o t f a s f t r t n n w h h a  
 H t o l l f t h b u n d e n r g y l e s d f r  
 g c m l l F m p l e m s g r d l l y  
 l l k e d w n a e f r a t w h h l  
 t h l e f e g y d w h c h m y u l t m t l y  
 l t t h f m a t n f c b d x d ( C O )  
 d w t e ( H O ) S P H O T O S Y N T H E S I S  
 F r t h t t l l t a l y t l l d  
 z y m e m t b p e t t s r v t w f l d p u  
 p F t h y t m t l n s p l t t g t h

times to indicate a species precisely several adjectives were necessary and thus the name of the plant became a long and cumbersome descriptive phrase. For greater convenience later writers attempted to shorten these names. Finally in 1753 Carolus Linnaeus in his celebrated *Species plantarum* established the practice of binomial nomenclature—the use of only one descriptive word with the Latin name. This usage proved so convenient that it was at once adopted by botanists. Therefore the date 1753 is regarded as the beginning of our modern system of taxonomic nomenclature. A binomial is thus composed of the noun or name of the genus followed by a word designating the particular species. The generic name is always spelled with a capital letter, most specific words (by some botanists all specific words) are spelled with small letters, for example *Quercus alba* white oak.

The generic name as noted above in many cases was the exact name of the plant used by the ancient Romans. The vast majority of members of the plant kingdom were of course outside the bounds of the ancient world and not being known to the Romans had no Latin names. To give the system universal application Latinized generic names for such plants had to be invented. Such names as *Fuchsia* in honor of Leonhart Fuchs, a distinguished botanist originated in this way.

**Authority for plant names.** It is customary to indicate the name of the botanist who first applied a particular scientific name to a given plant. This botanist is said to be the author and his name (often abbreviated for convenience) is placed after the scientific name of the plant or group; this is the citation. An example is *Trillium erectum* L., a plant named by Carolus Linnaeus. The better known the author the shorter is the abbreviation of his name. Linnaeus a name which is very familiar is abbreviated to L., but few others can be so greatly shortened.

**International botanical congresses.** As the exploration of the earth's surface was extended thousands of new plants were discovered and given scientific names. In the application of the names discrepancies in practice became apparent. Personal and national jealousies complicated the situation and the need for an international accord became evident. The first International Botanical Congress called by the Swiss botanist Alphonse de Candolle convened in Paris in 1867. Other congresses have been held at Vienna (1905), Brussels (1910), Ithaca, N.Y. (1926), Cambridge, England (1930), Amsterdam (1935), Stockholm (1950), Paris (1954), and Montreal, Canada (1959). These congresses have resulted in the codification of the International Rules of Botanical Nomenclature.

**International rules of botanical nomenclature.** These rules govern the application of scientific names under any situation. For example no plant should have more than one scientific name. It would more than one by error have been applied the earliest in general has priority, all others are synonym. Likewise two plants can not have the

same name. If the same name has been applied to two or more plants the duplicate names are called homonym and the later homonym must be replaced by a new name. Where a plant is first described in one genus and later transferred to another the original epithet must be retained unless the same epithet already exists in the new genus. If a conflict such as this develops a new name must be adopted. There are only a few of a very large number of items covered by the International Rules. In each new congress the rule becomes more complicated. See PLANT CLASSIFICATION: PLANT KINGDOM [E.L.C.]

*Bibliography.* See PLANT TAXONOMY

## Plant organs

Plant parts having rather distinct form, structure and function. Organs however are interrelated through both evolution and development and are similar in many ways.

**Roots, stems and leaves are vegetative or asexual plant organs.** They do not produce sex cells or play a direct role in sexual reproduction. In many species nevertheless the organs or part of them (cuttings) may produce new plants asexually (vegetative reproduction). Sex organs are formed during the reproductive stage of plant development. In flowering plants sex cells are produced in certain floral organs. The flower as a whole is sometimes called an organ, although it is more appropriate to consider it an assemblage of organs. See REPRODUCTION: PLANT

**Root.** The root is usually the underground part of the plant axis. It may consist of a dominant primary seedling root (taproot) with subordinate branch roots as in carrots and beets, or it may be composed as in grasses of numerous branched roots of similar dimensions (fibrous roots). Collectively all the roots of a plant are known as the root system. Roots anchor the plant, absorb water and mineral salts in solution from the soil and conduct the water to the stem. Organic food and growth substances received from the stem move to the area of growth and storage in the root.

**Stem and leaves.** The stem is usually the aerial part of the plant axis and bears leaves. The stem and leaves together constitute the shoot. In many species the major portion of the stem grows horizontally beneath the surface of the soil and this is called a rhizome or underground stem. The stem conducts water and mineral from the root to all parts of the shoot and food materials and growth substances from the shoot to the root. The stem may also serve as a storage organ for water and food. Green leaves containing chlorophyll when exposed to light and air carry on photosynthesis. A by-product of this process, oxygen, is returned to the atmosphere. Leaves also return large amounts of water vapor to the air through transpiration (evaporation). Some leaflike structures are protective (bud scales), others are fleshy (petals) which food and water may accumulate. The first leaves on a seed plant are called cotyledons.



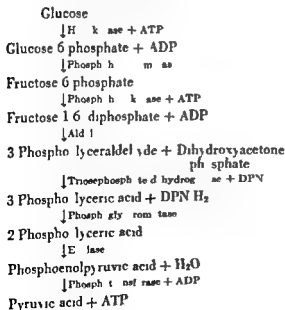
more complex organic molecules into simpler ones. Second and perhaps more important these enzymes facilitate the transfer of energy to energy rich phosphate bonds in organic phosphate molecules. See ENZYME.

**Mechanism of respiration** For an understanding of the many integrated reactions in respiration it is first necessary to establish that the living cells of some species of plants have respiratory reactions which do not require utilization of free oxygen. An example of such a species is yeast in which the following respiratory reaction occurs:



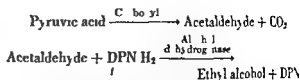
The end products of this anaerobic reaction are ethyl alcohol and carbon dioxide, whereas in the utilization of free oxygen in respiration carbon dioxide and water are the end products (see PLANT FERMENTATION). Many living cells have both aerobic and anaerobic respiratory systems. Consequently the kind of respiratory reaction that occurs is generally dependent on whether free oxygen is present. Some species of bacteria cannot live in the presence of free oxygen and are known as obligate anaerobes. In both aerobic and anaerobic respiration the end products are formed only after a number of intermediate reactions. The intermediate reactions common to both aerobic and anaerobic respiration are called glycolysis and do not utilize or require free oxygen. See BACTERIAL METABOLISM.

**Glycolysis** The central feature of the initial breakdown by glycolysis is the conversion of hexose sugar to pyruvic acid through a series of reactions which involve phosphorylated derivatives of hexose sugar or other carbohydrates. Each step involves the action of a specific phosphorylase enzyme; the steps may be summarized as follows (enzyme names are shown beside the arrows):



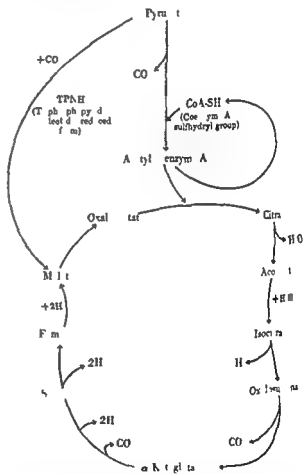
With the formation of pyruvic acid the initial and intermediate steps common to aerobic and anaerobic respiration end. The fate of pyruvic acid is different in the two kinds of respiration. In one

type of anaerobic respiration the following reactions occur:



**Krebs cycle** In aerobic respiration pyruvic acid is converted to  $CO_2 + H_2O$  by a series of reactions known collectively as the Krebs cycle. This cycle involves two kinds of enzyme dehydrogenases which remove hydrogen and carboxylates which remove  $CO_2$ . The dehydrogenase in turn releases the hydrogen to the terminal oxidase which combines the hydrogen with free oxygen forming  $H_2O$ . Thus the end products of aerobic respiration ( $H_2O$  and  $CO_2$ ) are the final products of pyruvic acid oxidation.

The Krebs cycle may be summarized by the following steps:

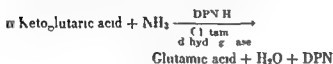


By the addition of the pyruvate (3-carbon compound) to oxaloacetate (4-carbon compound) and by passage through the Krebs cycle three molecules of  $CO_2$  are split off from different intermediates and sufficient hydrogen is transferred to oxygen to yield  $H_2O$ . In the formation of citric acid (6-carbon compound) from oxaloacetate plus pyruvate one molecule of  $CO_2$  is liberated. The citric acid is then degraded via the Krebs cycle with the loss of two additional molecules of  $CO_2$ . This re-



274 000 cal released by oxidation of pyruvic acid or an energy capture of 67%

In the preceding discussion it has been demonstrated how energy is captured in respiration. Now it becomes important to show how a respiratory intermediate product is synthesized into a cellular constituent. This is the second important function of respiration in terms of metabolism because  $\text{CO}_2$  and dissipated energy are useless.  $\alpha$ -Ketoglutaric acid, a respiratory intermediate, is the raw material from which the amino acid glutamic acid is synthesized. This synthesis occurs as follows:



**Factors affecting respiration** From the previous discussion on the nature of the respiratory mechanism it is evident that respiration involves an extremely complicated series of biochemical reactions which are intimately related to all living processes. If this were not true, methods used for the measurement of respiration would be far more accurate than they are at present. Respiration usually has been measured by the gas exchange technique. In investigation of the rate of aerobic respiration as it is affected by a certain factor, the oxygen used or carbon dioxide evolved is measured per weight of tissue. The gas exchange technique thus operates on the assumption that respiration is a complete oxidation of sugar in which one hexose molecule is oxidized by six  $\text{O}_2$  molecules and six  $\text{CO}_2$  molecules are released. Hence the ratio of the volume of  $\text{CO}_2$  evolved to the volume of  $\text{O}_2$  used is equal to unity. This ratio is called the respiratory quotient ( $\text{CO}_2/\text{O}_2$ ). But as the respiratory mechanism indicates every molecule of hexose sugar does not always end up as  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . Therefore the rate of respiration as measured by  $\text{CO}_2$  evolution may be far from completely accurate as an index of the respiratory intensity. However

Table 3 Rates of respiration of various plant organs

Species	Temperature	Respiratory intensity ( $\text{ml CO}_2/(\text{h})(\text{g fresh wt})$ )				
		C. Sepal	Petal	Stamen	Flower	Leaves
M. liliifolius	3.0	0.747	0.177	0.61	0.81	0.38
P. liliifolius	3.5	0.571	0.398	0.60	0.689	0.304
T. liliifolius	0	0.390	0.36	1.041	0.600	0.332
M. liliifolius	0	0.615	0.303	0.56	0.894	0.394

in the development of the present knowledge of factors which affect the rate of respiration it was necessary to evaluate respiration by gas exchange because better methods were not available to the investigators who obtained the data. Such data do not therefore constitute an absolute indicator of respiratory intensity but rather indicate an approximation or what might be called an apparent respiration rate.

The rate of respiration is influenced by a complex of interrelated factors that respiration intensity is dependent both on condition within the living cell and on environmental factors. The role of the living cell in regulating respiratory intensity is illustrated by differences in rate of respiration between species of plant, between organs of the same species and by age of the organ. Such differences are comparable only if environmental factors are the same. These differences are substantiated by experimental data presented in Table 2 and 3. The data show that at approximately equal temperatures respiratory intensity varies with species of plant and with various plant organs or parts of plant organs of the same species.

**Concentration of substrate** The discussion turns now to the question of why differences in respiration intensity occur. Excluding environmental factors the answer is found in the intracellular factors which control the many reactions of respiration. These are concentration of substrate such as sugar, concentration of enzymes, enzyme activators, and enzyme inhibitors and degree of cell hydration. For example, it has been shown that as sugar substrates are exhausted the rate of respiration decreases (as measured by  $\text{CO}_2$  evolution). Like a decrease in cellular water content in oxygenated results in a reduced rate of respiration (Fig. 1).

**Time factor** Research on fruit has demonstrated that time is an important factor in respiration intensity. The time effect as related to age of fruit is illustrated by the data on several varieties of apples (Fig. 2). The data show that as the apples reach maturity the rate of respiration increases. Other data show that at this peak of respiration intensity (climacteric) decrease continues but respiration falls off to a steady state.

**Environmental factors** The major environmental factors which affect the rate of respiration are temperature, oxygen concentration, carbon dioxide concentration, and light. Respiration is a chemical reaction and thus temperature increases the

Table 2 Rates of respiration of various plant species

Species	Description	Temperature	Intensity
		( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )	( $\text{ml O}_2/(\text{h})(\text{g fresh wt})$ )
C. tu. (C. u.)	H. b. eo	1	3.00
E. u. d. h. l.	H. b. eo	13	6.80
P. kly. pe	H. b. eo	13	11.40
(H. p. l.)	H. b. eo	13	16.60
St. rop	H. b. eo	15	41.10
N. w. y. spru	H. b. eo	13	77.60
C. mmon. ow	H. b. eo	1	96.60
B. o. d. be. n	H. b. eo	15	10.00
Fou. o. lock	H. b. eo	13	91.00
W. l. t.	H. b. eo	13	91.00

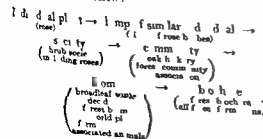
W. St. l. e. a. t. l. t. r. o. d. u. c. t. t. h. P. p. l. f. P. l. t.  
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l the di s i n f temperature eff cts n the  
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ph to with s and e pirati as infl enc d by  
tempe re w s me t o n e d This i t e r r l a t i n h u p  
s u m p r t i n p y i e l d T h e l i g h t n e t y a t  
b h h e r a t f r e p r a t i n n d p h o t s y n t h e  
a r g u l e l l e d t h e o m p e n a t i m p n t l f l i g h t  
w t a e u f f e t t i n p h t o s y n t h e s  
a t a r a p i d l y a s r e i n t e m p e r a t u r e c u e  
c e l e t n r e s p r a t o n t h e o m p n s i n p o i n t  
b a s e s H o w b f o g o w t h c u c c u i n p l a t  
p r t s c h u s t e m o t b l b s f r u i t n e e d  
t h a t e f p h o t s y n t h i m u s t e e d t h r a t e o f  
p a t s o t a t a f f t s u g a r m a s f r l e f  
p r a t i n h t d f r a t a l c a t i o n t s t o r a g e  
g n T h t w o n d e a t i o n s a r e o l e d  
(1) a m o t f u g a r n t e d n l g h t a n d (2) r t e  
o f n i g h t p i r a t n w h i c h i s g e a l l y c t l l d  
b y n i g h t t e m p e r a t u r e s A w e l l k n w n e a m p l e i l  
l u t a t i n t h e c i d e t i o n s h s t o d o w i t h t h e  
u s e o f l h p o t t b r a u d f f e n t c o n d  
b W a m n h t b y c a u n g a o m p a t i e l y  
h u g h r a t f e p t n l e a e t o l i t t l e u g a r f r  
w i t h t h e t b a n d m l p o t a t o e r u l t O  
t h e h d c l i g h t f a c i l i t y l d o f l a r g e  
p o t t o e T h s p e h a b i t a t i g h t i m p e r t r e  
e e r y m p r t n t i t h e g r o w t h n d d e l i m e n t  
f a g g a n S P L A N T G R O W T H P L A N T  
M I T B O L I S M [ J F F ]

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# Plant societies

A m b l a g f p l a t s w h b n i t u t t r t r a l  
n r f p l t o m m t h e y m a y b e o m p o  
n t p a t l r g m e n t u h a y l l e f  
f r m g r p l l y o l o c l l y p r m n t  
p o p l t f p l n t T h e e i m g e m e t s t  
t h e p a g e f t h t r m b e o d t h g l l y  
p r e d t h a t t h o u d b e d f t t u r l  
g t t n l m t f a k b l w w i t h t h e  
p l n t m m t y w h l e A h r f y o f p o  
e s r v l y l g u t s i g t t n t r t r w i t h  
a e x m p l s s f o l l o w s



Soc et es can be defined on the bas of structure  
d m n a n c e s e a o n a n d i f e f r m

**Structural societies** The e ocieties are groups  
of plant within a c m m u n i t y w h h a t t a i n a p p r x  
m a t l y t h e s a m e h i g h t a n d w h i c h l e a r t h e i r f l i  
a g e a t a b o u t t h e s a m e l e a l s o e g u n d T h e y a r e  
a l s o k o w n a l a y e r o c e t e s r u n i n s S u c h o c i e  
t i e s m a y f o r m a m o r e r l e s e n t n u s l a y e r  
t h r o u g h o u t t h e a r e a o c c u p e d b y t h e c o m m u n i t y I n  
a f r e t f o r e x a m p l e t h e e s t h e c a n p y s o c i e t y o f  
t a l l t r e e l o w t r e e c e t y s h r u b s o c i e t y h e r b s o c  
e t y a d g r a n d l a y e r o c i e t y T h e s e m a y l e r  
f i n e d f u r t h e r i f n e c e s s a r y S o m e a u t h o r s h a v e i m  
p l e d o s t a t e d t h a t t h e r c r a i n c l i n  
a m o g t h e c o m p n e n t s p e c e s o f a l a y i n c e t y  
g i n g i t t h e s t a t u s o f a c o m m u n i t y w i t h i n a c o m  
m u n i t y H o w e r s i n c e t h e e s a l s o o f t e n a t r n g  
i n t r d p e n d e n c e b e t w e e n m e m b e r o f d i f f e r e n t  
l a y e r s o c i e t e s a s i n t h e i n f l u e n c e o f t h c a n o p y  
u p o n t h e d e n s i t y o f l o w e r v e g e t a t o n i n a f o r e s t  
s c h o c e t s h o u l d n o t b r e g a r d e d i n d e p e d  
e n t e n t i e A u s f u l e t f s y m b o l s f o r t h e r e c r d  
i g f s p a t i a l a r a n g e m e n t o f v e g e t a t i o n h a s b e e n  
p o s e d b y P D a n s e r e a u

**Dominance societies** Th e societies have been  
d f i n e d b y J W a e r a n d F C l e m e n t s a s a s p e c t o  
c i e t e r s e r e o f t a n d c l a r l y b e l g n g t o a  
c t i n m m u n i t y I n a d d i t i o n t o t h e c l a r c t e r  
t i c d m n n t t h e s o c i e t y p o s e s c e t a i n u b  
d m a n t s r c d o m i n a n t s o f a n o t h e r l i f e f r m r  
a p e t t h a n t h e d o m a n t e l e m e n t s i n t h e c m m u  
n i t y T h e c e p t i s u s e f u l e p e c i l l y i n g r a l a n d s  
m a h e a t h s a n d t h e v e g e t a t i o n t y p e s i n  
w h i c h d m c e a n m p o r t a n t f e a t u r e F o r i n  
t n c e p r a i r e o m m n i t e m a y b e d e f i n e d n t h e  
b f g r a s p e c i e W i t h i n t h e s c o m m u n i t y  
e r t a n s p i c o s b a d l e d h b s f o r m l a l  
p e c t e s T h e e x t e n t n d d i m p l m e n t f  
h s o c e t e s h a e b e n s e d a i n d c t r f t h e  
e c e n t h i s t o r y o f g r a s l a d s t a n d e s p e c i l l y w i t h  
g a r d t i m a t f l u c t a t i o n s

**Seasonal societies** W e a e n d C l e m e n t s a l s o  
a p p l e d t h e s e m o c i e t y m o r e p e c i a l l y t o g r u p s  
o f p l a n t s w h h d e t r m e t h e e o a l a p e c t s f  
p l n t c m m n t e E x a m p l e s o f s u c h s o a l o  
t e s t h r p e t o f t r i l l m b l o o d r o t d g  
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**Life form societies** P l a n t s i n m m u n i t y  
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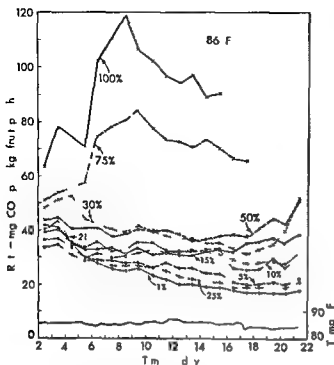


Fig 4 The effect of oxygen concentration on the rate of respiration as measured by  $\text{CO}_2$  evolution of Wicksen plum (From L L Claypool and F W Allen H J Gard a 21(6) 129-160 1951)

tions of  $\text{CO}_2$  have higher rates of respiration because the increased photosynthetic rate results in more sugar substrate for respiration

**Food production and food use** When food production is compared to food use the maximum rate of photosynthesis occurs at lower temperatures than the maximum rate of respiration (Fig 5). This means that during extremely hot daylight hours of summer the rate at which food is made by photosynthesis may barely equal the rate at which food is used in respiration. Respiration goes on continuously day and night and photosynthesis occurs only during the hours of daylight thus it is evident that if such conditions persisted for a very long period would be (respiratory decomposition)

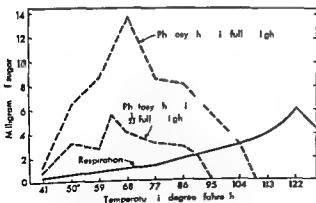


Fig 5 Relative rate of photosynthesis and respiration in potato leaves during 10-minute periods at different temperatures in shade and full light (From R calculated from data by H S Ludogaard (From E Trnava H C Sampson and L H Tiffney T. J. Book of Botany Harp 1953)

would greatly exceed the production of food growth would cease and the plant would succumb

**Respiration and agriculture** Data from respiratory research have enabled scientists to recommend methods whereby various food products may be transported and stored with a minimum loss of quality. Fruit and vegetables are kept at high quality for shipment and storage by refrigeration. The reason for refrigeration is that low temperature causes respiration rate to be at a minimum. Deterioration in quality occurs at the higher temperatures because of factors associated with high rates of respiration. Deterioration is also held to a minimum by the maintenance of high  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations and low oxygen concentrations in storage structures but refrigeration is the most widely used method.

Unlike fruits and vegetables seeds which are to be stored for food or planting purposes can be kept at high germinability with little deterioration by removal of moisture from the seeds to a level where the rate of respiration is at a minimum. Maintenance of germinability with prevention of loss in quality of stored seeds is now being carried out on a large scale by removal of moisture from seeds to a moisture content which is safe for storage. Moisture removal is accomplished either by natural curing in environments of high evaporation or by artificial drying in humid environments. The safe storage moisture contents of several kinds of seeds are shown in Table 4. A considerable variation exists in safe storage moisture contents among the different kinds of seed because safe storage moisture content for a seed is the moisture content which will be in equilibrium with relative humidities of less than 75% so as to prevent or check microbial deterioration. The equilibrium moisture of a particular kind of seed at relative humidities of less than 75% will depend upon the chemical constituents of the seed. Seeds high in hydrophilic colloids (proteins and tarches) will have higher safe storage moisture contents than seeds which

Table 4 Safe storage moisture contents of various kinds of seeds for maintenance of high germinability and low deterioration

Kind of seed	Safe storage moisture content %
Billy	10
Buckwheat	15
Buckwheat	110
Corn	10
Cornmeal	100
Flaxseed	79
Oat	118
Potato	60
Rice	15
Rye	1
Sorghum	85
Soybean	119
Soybean	93
Wheat	84
Wheat	10

Oat of wheat  
T. J. Trnava  
Albany, N.Y.

# taxonomic literature

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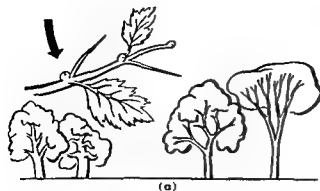
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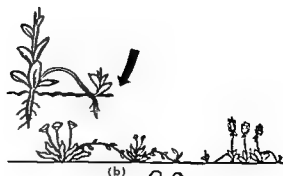
B bl g phy S PLANT TAXONOMY

## Plant taxonomy

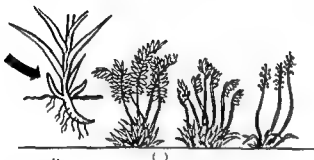
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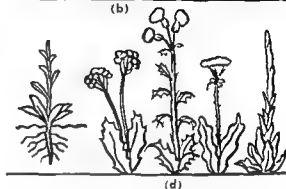
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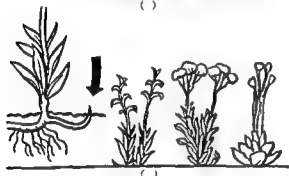
(b)



(c)



(d)



(e)



(f)

Analysis of a hawthorn sapling community in terms of life forms (with seasonal variation). With each society a diagram the life form shows one type of structure (flowering bud). (a) Society of low

deciduous trees (b) Society of sod-forming hemi-cryptophyte (c) Society of stoloniferous chamaephyte (d) Society of stoloniferous chamaephyte (e) Society of stoloniferous chamaephyte (f) Structure of the entire community

buds at the same level in or above the soil constitute life form societies or synusia. Members of such societies are therefore subject to similar growth conditions and frequently develop according to a similar pattern. The illustration shows how a plant community may be analyzed structurally using life forms as a criterion to distinguish societies such as the following: (1) society of clumped low deciduous trees (hawthorn); (2) society of sod-forming graminoids flowering in midsummer (bluegrass, redtop and clover); (3) society of short rhizomatous hemi-cryptophytes with winter rosettes and autumnal flowering period (garden rodent); (4) stoloniferous chamaephytes with winter rosette flowering in early summer (pulsatilla, cinquefoil, strawberry); and (5) society of biennial rosette plants (wild carrot, thistle, mullein).

Such divisions into societies are useful because they demonstrate the arrangement in space of the aerial and underground parts of the species in the community as well as the timing of the reproductive cycles.

From the enumeration of criteria it is evident (1) that all types of societies regardless of the criteria used to define them have certain common features and (2) that there is a lack of agreement regarding the precise meaning and definition of the term society. Pending a definitely internationally acceptable vocabulary for ecology, the word society should be used only with a qualifying adjective such as seasonal society or structural society. Where another term with a more specific meaning is available as an alternative for structural society or synusia for life form society, the word should be avoided.

The society concept remains useful to ecologists in the analysis of vegetation as a general term for structural elements. See PLANT COMMUNITY.

[ALE]  
Bibliography: E. A. Cain and G. M. de Oliveira Castro, *Manual of Vegetation Analysis*, 1959; J. R. Carpenter, *An Ecological Glossary*, 1956; J. F. Weaver, *North American Prairie*, 1954; J. F. Weaver and F. E. Clement, *Plant Ecology*, 1938.



omy involves the application of all other branches of plant science particularly genetics, evolution, morphology, anatomy, physiology and ecology.

Modern plant taxonomy is the outgrowth of a long trial and error experience with methods of classification and arrangement. The first scientific botanical writings were produced by the Greek philosopher Aristotle (384-322 B.C.) and his pupil Theophrastus (372-287 B.C.). Theophrastus, who is called the Father of Botany, listed the names of nearly 500 plants, and some of these still stand as generic names in modern taxonomy. These early Greek scholars arranged plants in three groups: herbs, shrubs, and trees. Little botanical knowledge was added during the next 1500 years.

In the fifteenth century men again became curious about plants. During the Middle Ages plants were classified according to their uses, such as medicinal plants, edible plants, and poisonous plants. About this time there appeared printed botanical books called herbals, which contained the descriptions of plants considered to have medical value. In addition to the descriptions, several herbals were illustrated with woodcuts. Some illustrations were so accurate that today botanists can readily recognize the plants as they were originally pictured. This period, sometimes called the Age of the Herbals, lasted for about two hundred years (1470-1670). During these years botany made the most steady, rapid, and consistent advance recorded up to that time. This period, however, also produced odd and unscientific interpretations, some of which still persist in certain quarters. One of these, the Doctrine of Signatures, maintained that often the medicinal plant was stamped with some clear indication (signature) of its specific remedial power. For example, plants with yellow sap were said to cure jaundice.

As the development of herbals continued, botany advanced from a status of dependence on medicine to that of an independent science. From the classification of plants according to their usefulness to man, there gradually developed an interest in classifying them according to their own natural relationships. Also there arose a growing interest in a more precise system of naming plants so that there might be much less confusion. The publication of *Species plantarum* (1753) by Carolus Linnaeus, a Swedish botanist, marked the end of the old era in plant taxonomy and the beginning of a new epoch. Linnaeus developed a method of classification based primarily on the number of stamens in the flowers. He consistently used the binomial nomenclature introduced by Caspar Bauhin (1560-1624). Linnaeus organized the work of his predecessors and fashioned it into a system by which the average person could identify and name an unfamiliar plant. He recognized natural relationships but believed that only through an arbitrary arrangement could the vast number of known species be presented in a serviceable manner. All these artificial systems of classification were predicated upon obvious superficial characteristics.

However, even before the close of the eighteenth century, botanists had begun to improve plant taxonomy by making more clear and complete their descriptions of plants by defining categories more sharply and especially by attempting to discover a natural basis of classification. The efforts to produce an acceptable natural system were pursued vigorously by the appearance of Charles Darwin's *Origin of Species* (1859), which focused attention upon evolution as a basis for natural relationships.

In 1866 Ernst H. Haeckel coined the term phylogeny to designate the genealogical development in phyla of plants and animals. Despite much attention, phylogenetic taxonomy still remains in its early stages because of insufficient information concerning the evolutionary origin and development of the plant kingdom. The true genealogy of plants is not known since this record is buried in the past ages. Hence no scheme of natural classification reveals the complete relationship of all plants. Taxonomists try to place the primitive plants at the bottom and the most advanced plants at the top of the scheme using morphological similarities and differences as the principal criteria. As investigation brings more and better information, classification methodology should improve, resulting in greater refinement of existing procedures. See PLANT CLASSIFICATION. PLANT KINGDOM [p. 65].

*Bibliography:* Leroy Abrams et al. *An Illustrated Flora of the Pacific States*, 3 vol., 1940-1951. L. H. Bailey, *The Standard Cyclopedia of Horticulture*, rev. ed., 3 vols., 1953. N. L. Britton and A. Brown, *An Illustrated Flora*, 3 vol., 3d ed., prepared by H. A. Gleason, 1952. E. L. Core, *Plant Taxonomy*, 1955. M. L. Fernald, *Gray's Manual of Botany*, 8th ed., 1950. G. H. M. Lawrence, *Taxonomy of Vascular Plants*, 1951. P. A. Rydberg, *Flora of the P. aries and Plains of Central North America*, 1932. P. A. Rydberg, *Flora of the Rocky Mountains and Adjacent Plains*, 2d ed., 1922. J. H. Small, *Manual of the Southeastern Flora*, 1933.

## Plant tissue systems

Most plants are composed of coherent masses of cells called tissues. Large units of tissues having some features in common are called tissue systems. In actual usage, however, the terms tissue and tissue system are not strictly separated. A given tissue or a combination of tissues may be continuous throughout the plant or large parts of it.

Although classification of tissue systems may be based on structure or function, the two aspects usually are combined. Plant tissues are primary or secondary in origin. The primary arise from apical meristems, the perennially embryonic tissues at the tips of roots and shoots (see illustration). The primary tissues include the surface layer or epidermis, the primary vascular tissue, xylem and phloem, which conduct water and food respectively, and the ground tissues. The latter are parenchyma (chiefly concerned with manufacture and storage of food) and collenchyma and sclerenchyma (the two supporting tissues). In the stem



sugar content of the xylem sap is maximal for the season the importance of the xylem as a translocatory system for sugar is negligible at least for the species that have been investigated in this respect

Less data are presently available on the relative importance of xylem and phloem in the transport of nitrogenous compounds either in inorganic or organic combinations. Chromatographic analyses of the xylem sap of many different species have been reported and reveal the occurrence of a large number of amino acids especially aspartic and glutamic acids and the corresponding amides also occasionally urea and certain related ureide and alkaloids (see ALKALOID AMIDE ACID ASPARTIC ACID CHROMATOGRAPHY GLUTAMIC ACID UREA). The relative quantities of these compounds vary widely with species. Inorganic forms of nitrogen especially nitrate N occur usually in trace quantities only or are absent altogether. The concentration of the nitrogenous constituents in the xylem sap unlike that of soluble carbohydrate remains moderately high throughout the major portion of the growing season at an average concentration of about 0.03 M glutamine equivalent in apple for example. Conversely the concentration of nitrogenous constituents in the exudate from sieve tubes of the phloem (this exudate is readily collected by making an incision in the bark to the depth of the active phloem as shown in Fig. 1) is usually very low of the order of 0.001 M. The data provide presumptive evidence that the xylem is the predominant channel of transport for nitrogenous compounds especially from the roots to the leaves, fruits and stems. On the other hand data obtained

from a number of experiments in which conventional ringing techniques were employed tend to suggest that the phloem is the major transport system. For the present these and other controversial data bearing on this problem can only be reconciled on the basis that the relative importance of the xylem and phloem in the translocation of nitrogenous compounds varies with species, the ontogenetic (life history) stage of the plant and various environmental conditions. Redistribution of nitrogenous compounds from the leaves to other parts of the plant is generally considered to occur mainly in the phloem.

The increasing use of systemic spray compounds as insecticides, fungicides, bactericides and herbicides on plants has centered considerable interest in the study of molecular modification which increases the absorbability and translocatability of these compounds (see ANTIBACTERIAL AGENTS FUNGICIDES AND FUNGICIDE HERBICIDES IN ESTER CIDE). Many carbamate for example have growth modifying and herbicidal effect but are not readily translocated when applied to mature leaves (see URETHANE). However by incorporating the lactic acid group



into the molecule as in lactic acid  $\alpha$ -phenylcarbamate or  $\alpha$ -carboxyethoxyethyl  $\alpha$ -phenylcarbamate the translocatability of the molecules is greatly increased. Closely related derivatives without the lactic acid group are not translocatable. Much work remains to be done on the general problem of molecular structure in relation to translocatability. Glucose and fructose although frequently abundant throughout the plant are much less translocatable than sucrose (see FRUCTOSE GLUCOSE SUCROSE). Chromatographic analyses of the sieve tube exudate from a considerable number of different tree species have revealed the consistent absence of hexose sugar except for the occurrence in a few (*Fraixus*) of mannitol, the alcohol derivative of mannose (see CARBOHYDRATE). Of true sugars only the nonreducing oligosaccharides of the raffinose family have been found namely sucrose, raffinose, stachyose and possibly melibiose. The sugar constituents are a descending series of di-, tri-, tetra- and pentasaccharides differing from each other only in the number of included galactose residues (sucrose none, raffinose one, stachyose two and verbascoside three). Sucrose is the dominant constituent in the sieve tube exudate of all species thus far analyzed except in a few in which melibiose occurs in the highest concentration. The total tachyosaccharide concentration ranges from 10 to 25% varying with species and in individual trees and fluctuating diurnally and seasonally. In Sicily the sugar is harvested from various species of a holly tree especially *Fraixus* minus by

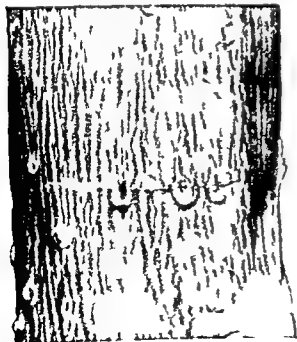


Fig. 1. Depth of etching from a phloem canal in the bark of box-elder *A. nigra* (Photograph by K. L. Webb, a. d. R. H. H. d. g. a.)



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Fig 3 L m f t g f d M a y 4 d p h o t q p h d  
M a y 29 F r u t w 51.4 m m d m t w h g a f t d  
d 65.2 m m w h m t o D m b e i l p r v g  
i l l d r e n l m f 63° ( F m l C  
E k 5 125 3253) 994 1957)



sugar content of the xylem sap is maximal for the sea on the importance of the xylem as a translocatory system for sugar is negligible at least for the species that have been investigated in this respect

Less data are presently available on the relative importance of xylem and phloem in the transport of nitrogenous compound either in inorganic or organic combinations. Chromatographic analyses of the xylem sap of many different species have been reported and reveal the occurrence of a large number of amino acids especially aspartic and glutamic acids and the corresponding amide also occasionally urea and certain related ureides and alkaloids (see ALKALOID AMIDE ACID ASPARTIC ACID CHROMATOGRAPHY GLUTAMIC ACID UREA). The relative quantities of these compounds vary widely with species. Inorganic forms of nitrogen especially nitrate  $N$  occur usually in trace quantities only or are absent altogether. The concentration of the nitrogenous constituent in the xylem sap unlike that of soluble carbohydrates remains moderately high throughout the major portion of the growing season at an average concentration of about  $0.03 M$  glutamine equivalent in apple for example. Conversely the concentration of nitrogenous constituents in the exudate from sieve tubes of the phloem (this exudate is readily collected by making an incision in the bark to the depth of the active phloem as shown in Fig. 1) is usually very low of the order of  $0.001 M$ . These data provide presumptive evidence that the xylem is the predominant channel of transport for nitrogenous compounds especially from the roots to the leaves fruit and stems. On the other hand data obtained

from a number of experiments in which conventional ringing techniques were employed strongly suggest that the phloem is the major transport system. For the present these and other controversial data bearing on this problem can only be reconciled on the basis that the relative importance of the xylem and phloem in the translocation of nitrogenous compounds varies with the ontogenetic (life history) stage of the plant, and associated environmental conditions. Redistribution of nitrogenous compounds from the leaves to other parts of the plant is generally considered to occur mainly in the phloem.

The increasing use of systemic spray compounds as insecticides fungicides bactericides and herbicides on plants has centered considerable interest in the study of molecular modifications which increase the absorptibility and translocatability of these compounds (see ANTIBACTERIAL AGENTS FUNGICIDES AND FUNGICIDE HERBICIDES IN ACTION). Many carbamates for example have growth-modifying and herbicidal effects but are not readily translocated when applied to mature leaves (see URETHANE). However by incorporating the lactic acid group



into the molecule as in lactic acid  $\alpha$  phenylcarbamate or  $\alpha$  carbododecoxyethyl  $\beta$  phenylcarbamate the translocatability of the molecules is greatly increased. Closely related derivatives without the lactic acid group are not translocatable. Much work remains to be done on the general problem of molecular structure in relation to translocatability. Glucose and fructose although frequently abundant throughout the plant are much less translocatable than sucrose (see FRUCTOSE GLUCOSE SUCROSE). Chromatographic analyses of the sieve tube exudate from a considerable number of different tree species have revealed the consistent absence of hexose sugars except for the occurrence in ash (*Fraxinus*) of mannitol the alcohol derivative of mannose (see CARBOHYDRATE). Of true sugars only the nonreducing oligosaccharides of the raffinose family have been found namely sucrose raffinose stachyose and possibly erbacone. These sugars constitute an ascending series of di-, tri-, tetra- and penta-accharides differing from each other only in the number of included galactose residues (sucrose none raffinose one stachyose two and erbacone three). Sucrose is the dominant constituent in the sieve tube exudate of all species thus far analyzed except in a few in which stachyose occurs in the highest concentration. The total stachyose concentration ranges from 10 to 25% varying with species and individual trees and fluctuating diurnally and seasonally. In Sicily this sugar is harvested from various species of a holly tree especially *Fraxinus ornus* by

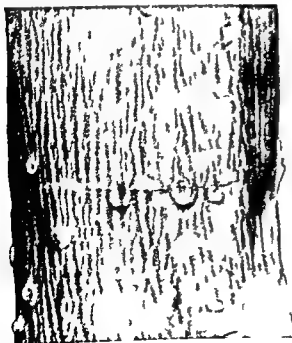


Fig. 1. Drops of sieve tube sap oozing from a phloem incision made at the level XX in the bark of a boxelder. A. Erceg (Photograph by K. L. W. B. B. O. D. R. H. H. D. G. S.).



Fig 1 Tobacco mosaic virus (TMV) on tobacco leaves. The white lines on the leaves are characteristic of the disease. (Photograph by M. L. O.)

Fig 2 Tobacco mosaic virus (TMV) on tobacco leaves. The white lines on the leaves are characteristic of the disease. (Photograph by M. L. O.)

in old is referred to as a symptomless carrier and cultivated plants weed or other wild plants of this sort may be among the important reservoirs of virus for a particular disease.

**Transmission of viruses** Fortunately few viruses are transmitted through seeds or pollen of plants. However because of the usual systemic nature of the infection most viruses are perpetuated in plants which are propagated vegetatively by such means as cutting, bulb root and grafted roots (see GRAFTING OF PLANTS REPRODUCTION PLANT). A great many cultivated plants for example potatoes and sugar cane are propagated vegetatively and it is in these that viruses cause the greatest losses.

Almost all plant viruses can be transmitted by grafting a portion of a diseased plant onto a susceptible healthy plant. This is one of the most efficient methods of a certain way whether a virus may be introduced in a disease. A few viruses are transmitted by any of the following: a minute amount of sap from a diseased cell and introducing it into a healthy cell (e.g. example of rubbing leaves together finger or tool to bring plant). Some are transmitted by mites and some by nematodes (see ACARINA NEMATODA). However most plant viruses are transmitted by insects, a few by biting insects such as beetles but most by sucking insects such as phloem-sucking leafhoppers. Almost all of them are transmitted by one kind of insect (see ENTOMOLOGY ECONOMIC INSECTA).

There are several kinds of relationships between the virus and the vector. In general on the one hand the virus acquires the tip of its mouthparts (gustatory) and a probe of a diseased plant and transmits it while making similar probes of healthy plants. In the other type the virus is taken into the body of the insect carrier and only after it multiplies there for 1-2 weeks does the vector transmit it. For the rest of its life



Fig 2 Tobacco mosaic virus (TMV) on tobacco leaves. The white lines on the leaves are characteristic of the disease. (Photograph by M. L. O.)

**Mechanism of translocation** Any mechanism which is proposed to explain the translocation of solutes in the phloem must take into account the following facts

1 Living cells are essential Unlike the transport of water and inorganic solutes in the xylem transport of organic solutes in the phloem can occur only through living cells Killing the cells in a localized zone of the stem for example with steam boiling water or hot wax is as effective a barrier to the transport of phloem limited solutes as is complete removal of the phloem by ringing However the specific cells in the phloem through which the major fraction of the solutes is considered to be translocated namely the sieve tubes and other sieve element are enucleated cells and on the basis of various cytohistochemical observations it is commonly held that the protoplasm of these cells is relatively inactive metabolically compared to that of the other tissues (see CYTOLOGY PROTOPLASM) Nevertheless it is apparent that a certain minimum level of metabolic activity is essential (see PLANT METABOLISM)

2 Rate of translocation is rapid The rate of dry weight increase in fruit tubers and fleshy root reflects the rate of organic translocation and this quantity varies for different species and environmental conditions from about 0.03 g/hour to in excess of 2 g/hour when a craged over the entire growing season (flowering to harvest) The velocity required to account for the known rates of translocation is about 1-2 cm/min based on the assumption that the entire cross-sectional area of the sieve tubes (exclusive of the walls) is available for transport Direct measurements of the velocity of translocation of radioactively labeled compounds through stems provide comparable value It has been estimated that the rate of translocation is 10 000-100 000 times faster than can be accounted for by diffusion

3 Translocation is frequently polarized Growing regions on the plant especially rapidly developing fruits exert a strong monopolizing effect on the distribution pattern of organic solutes translocated from the leaves and other areas of synthesis or storage This polarizing action of fruit is established during the early stages of embryodevelopment and does not develop in the absence of pollination in nonparthenocarpic fruits In apple tree it has been shown that for a constant ratio of 30 leaves per fruit the leaves and fruit can be separated by distances up to 10 ft (the maximal distance varying with plant variety) without any loss in the size and quality of the fruit

None of the current theories which have been proposed to explain the mechanism of solute translocation in the phloem is capable of reconciling all of the known facts regarding this process The theory that has received the most general acceptance despite a number of admitted limitations is that developed principally by E. Munch about 1930 and known as the *Druckstrom* or pressure-flow mechanism According to this theory modified to take

into account newer information and concepts, there is a flow of solution within the sieve tubes in the direction of a positive turgor pressure or hydrostatic pressure gradient that is from a region of higher to a region of lower turgor pressure within the sieve tube This pressure gradient is established and maintained osmotically as a result of the metabolic entry and removal of translocatory solutes principally sucrose into and from the sieve tubes. The entry of sucrose into the sieve tube as donor cells and its removal at acceptor sites appears to be in many cases against a concentration gradient and hence must be a metabolically actuated process. It is known that the process of translocation is actively influenced by the physiological status of the donor and acceptor organs

Other theories on phloem translocation, for example the cytoplasmic streaming hypothesis, all tribute a more active role to the individual cell or elements of the sieve tube. In brief however the present status of the overall problem must favor the view that the sieve tube protoplasm does not possess any metabolic machinery capable of driving the translocation process, except for metabolically actuated transference mechanisms which move solutes across limiting membranes at the sites of entry and exit into and from the sieve tubes. Throughout the major portion of the transport distance it appears that the solute are impelled along at different rates by solvent drag forces resulting from the osmotically actuated flow of water through the sieve tubes [C. A. W.]

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## Plant virus

Virus attack many higher flowering plants, but with the exception of the viruses which attack bacteria or actinomycete none has been definitely shown to infect lower forms in the plant kingdom such as ferns, mosses or algae. Some viruses attack many species of plants in many genera and families; others appear to be limited to a single family.

**Virus symptoms** Symptoms may occur in any part of the plant including the roots. The most common symptom is mosaic that is patterns of light and dark green areas in leaves (Fig. 1). In most virus diseases mosaic or other symptoms are preceded by clearing of veins in the leaves of regrowth. Some of the older leaves may show primary lesions for example yellow spots at points where the virus was introduced. Sometimes there is a mosaic pattern on the stems or fruits as well as on the leaves or the flower petals may be variegated. The earliest records of plant viruses are Dutch paintings of symptoms in tulip flowers.

**Types of virus diseases** There are many types of virus diseases. One cause lack of



Fig 5 Four types of plasma instabilities. (a) Top left: A straight rod with a periodic perturbation. (b) Top right: A rod with a more complex, wavy perturbation. (c) Bottom left: A rod with a highly irregular, filamentary perturbation. (d) Bottom right: A rod with a very complex, chaotic perturbation.

... ed ... n p t s v r i t h t a r n  
fected by o m r e p o d u c g o o  
v b) s m p t m C o t o l m e m l d e g r  
s i b r e d g f d i e i n e h i l l i n g  
e e d s d i t m p i n r v i e s  
t h e d n d m n y t h p t e t h a t h v e  
h e e f a t m p r t n e m a n t a n g p y e l d  
o g l v S P L A N T D I S E A S E P L A N T D I S E A S  
o r n L [1 M B]  
B b l x p l y K M S m t h A T e x t b o o k f P l u t  
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1-6 19 3-19 9

## Plantaginiales

A m l d r f t h e p l a t b e l D t y l d a  
h n g a g l e f m y w i t h 3 g e n a d 00 p  
r e f m p l t n a g T h p l a n t e h r b  
e n u T h l e s e e t t e t h f r c  
e p o s e p i t e p a t a d t h f u t a  
c m l p u l r r g t h t p n l g  
i g l a t a g d l g l M t o f t h g  
e w e d b t h e f l w t (P l e p y l l m)  
u l t e d S p a s d F a c f p u l l u m d  
e d s l t S D I C O T Y L D O V E E S  
P L A N T K I N G D O M [P D S]

## Plasma physics

T h a t f i l l f p h w h l a t t h e t d f  
h g h l y e d g e A g w h c h m p d f  
a) g u l m l f a t n d g a t f  
h a g e (p o u t n p d l t n) l l d  
p l m f r i l l g l d f t h l l t g

B e c a u e i t i s c o m p o s e d f c h a r g e d p a r t i c l e s a  
p l a m e c h b i t s m a y p h e n o m e n a n o t e n c u n d e r d  
i n o r d n a r y g a I n a d d i t i o n t h e i r i m p o r t a n c e  
i s m a y n w a r a f p p l e d e c e n c e t h e e f f e c t s  
a r e e v i d e n t i n t r o p h y c a l p h n m e n a (m o t f  
t h e m a t t e r i s i n t h e e x i t s i n t h e p l a m a  
s t a t e) l o t h i n t h e l a r a t m p h e r e a n d i n t e r  
t h e l a r p e P l a m a p h e n m e n a l a e a l l e e n  
o b s e r v e d i n t h e t e m u n i z e d g a f t h e e r t h a  
o u t e a t m p h e e S C O S M I C E L E C T R O D Y N A M I C S

P a c t i c l t e t i n p l a m p h y s i a t e f r m  
v r o u s a p p l i c a t i o n s o f t h e d i s c u s s i o n i n t h e  
t u d y f e l e t r n b e m i n e l c t o n t u b e a n d f r o m  
t h e e w e a r c h f i e l d s f u l t a h i g h t e m p e r a t u r e  
p r o c e s s a d o t r a n s f e r i n (s e F U L T O N N U  
C L A R P I N C H E F F E C T) I n t h e e l a t t e r e x p e r i m e n t  
m i l l i m e t e r s h a n d d f m i l l i m e t e r s o f d e g r e  
k i n e t i c t e m p e r a t u r e a r e e q u a l (k i n e t i c  
t e m p a t r e i d e f i n e d l a t e r) T o o t a n a c o m p r e h e n s i v e  
p h y s i c a l p e r t e o f p l a m a i t i s n e c e s s a r y  
t o c o n d r t h a v o f r o m t w o d i f f e r e n t a p p r o a c h e s

1 T h m r e p e r t u r e r e l a t i o n s h i p b e t w e e n  
t h e l e k p r o p e r t y c h a r a c t e r i s t i c o f n t r  
p a r t i c l e o l l i n i n p r d u c i n g d i f f u s i o n a n d t h e r  
t a n s p o r t p h e n o m e n a i o n z i t n x r a d a t i o n a n d  
t h e r p a t u l a t p e s i n t h e p t u e a p l a m a  
h b u t p r e p a r t m e f w h i c h a m h l i k e  
t h o o f a n y g a s

2 T h m a c r o p p t u w h r t h l l e t e  
o r f i d l k p e r t u r e m t i d n t T h e  
p e r t u r e m u d c o n d u c t f e l e t r i t y p  
g a t n f o u n d o f w a n d a b i l i t y t o  
u p p t l a s e s f n t t l e a d t u r b l e t h h v r  
p e l a t c o n d t n g f l d M n y o f t h e m c r o  
c o p i l l h a s l i p p e t s f p l m a e e l a t d  
t o t h g e a l f i d o f m g n t h y d d y n a m (s e  
M A G N E T O H Y D R O D Y N A M I C S)

T h e h r g d p a t l e s f a p l n a t t w i t h  
e s h t h e t h g h t h e l t r o t t e o r C l m b  
f i e l d w t h w h i c h e a f i r r u d d O g r i t h t h e m i c r o  
s c o p a l e t h i t o t a t i c f i d g r i t o  
l o a l z d a t t r t u e r p l i e f o e b t w e n  
t h e p a r t c l t h v p a m r t o e a c h o t h e r  
s l i g m t l d f l e t o n O n t h e m r o p e  
l e t h u m m o n i t h m a n y i n f i n i t m a l  
l e t t t a d m a g n e t i c f i e l d p d u d h t h  
m v n g p l m p a r t l e c u l t u a m d t o  
g d l t r o m g n e t f i l d T h p l m t h n  
r e a t s l l t e l y t h a t s i n d u c t i n f l d  
t t h t t a l e l t o m a g n e t i c f i l d w h i c h t s  
m m e d T h f i l d s t f t h m b n t o n  
f t h p l m e f e c t m a g e t f i l d a d n y e x  
t r l l y i m p d f i l d s T h e o p l d m m f t h e  
p l m m i n d t h l t o m a g e t f i l d n  
w h h t m e t h u e f m t f i t h m  
p l e t y f p l a m a b e h i o r

## CRITERION FOR PLASMA PHENOMENA

A l g h c a l w h h p p m a t e l y d i d e t h e  
m o o p d m f m t h m r o c p d m n  
n p l a m t h o f l d D b y r e n g d  
s e a l t a l h w t h t s i n g a s t h d



Fig 3 Tumor cut from the roots and massed at the crown of a young plant infected by wood tumor virus

the insect may continue to transmit the virus. Some of the insects are known to be diseased by the virus and pass it to their young through the egg. However, none of the plant viruses is known to attack higher animals.

**Structure and chemical composition.** Viruses have various shapes—rods, flexuous filaments, spheres, polyhedra or plastic forms—all of which are too small to be seen with the light microscope but have been resolved by the electron microscope (Fig 5). The principal components of viruses are protein and nucleic acid, the latter carrying the hereditary determinants. The single strand of nucleic acid occurring in each tobacco mosaic virus particle is separated from the protein without being broken in infectious viruses, whereas the protein is not. The nucleic acid strands and subunits of the protein can be recombined in the test tube to reconstitute virus particles. The nucleic acid can also

be chemically changed in the test tube to produce mutants of the virus. These discoveries have contributed to our basic understanding of heredity (see **MUTATION NUCLEIC ACID VIRUS**).

Mutations of most plant viruses occur spontaneously and are readily isolated in the laboratory. In nature such mutations also occur but here strains showing greater differences from each other are also found which, for their development, probably require evolutionary intervals not available in the laboratory.

When a virus is introduced into a plant, the protein apparently separates from the nucleic acid. Freshly formed free nucleic acid and protein subunits appear in the cells before the completed virus particles. The infective agent is assumed to spread through the microscopic protoplasmic strands (plasmodesmata) connecting one cell with another through the cellulose wall (see **CELL STRUCTURES**). Passage through the parenchyma cells is slow but transport through the vascular elements (food and water conducting cells) is rapid.

**Economic importance.** Losses from plant viruses vary from the destruction between 1936 and 1946 of 7 000 000 orange trees by tristeza disease in the state of Sao Paulo, Brazil, to the insidious annual

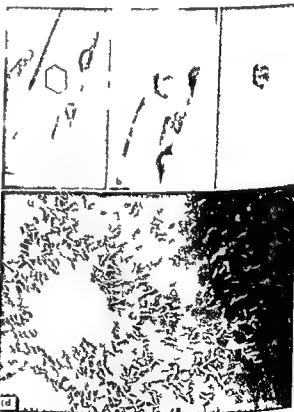


Fig 4 (a) Crystalline lattice of tobacco mosaic virus photographed at a grid of tobacco plant magnified 500 $\times$  (b) The amorphous crystalline lattice of tobacco mosaic virus magnified 500 $\times$  (c) Tobacco mosaic virus removed from the cell magnified 500 $\times$  (d) A partially dissolved form of the amorphous crystalline lattice of tobacco mosaic virus particles magnified 11 000 $\times$  (Photograph by M. R. L. St. Aubert)

perment to n is 50 000-100 000 K, a d r nge  
p to ten o h ndreds f m l l o n o f d g e e s  
R t u r n i n g t h e q u e s t i o n o f p r o d u c i n g t h e  
p l a s m a b y m e a n s o f a g n e c a l l s t h a t s h  
p o c e s s i s o d i a r y g a s o s d i h r g s  
f e a m p l e i f l u r e c e t l a m p H o w e r i n s u c h  
d h g t h e d e l e c t o o f t h e p l a m a  
c u a l l y a d p d l y b e n g c o l d n d c m  
b d b y c e t t w t h t h c h a m b e w a l l t h a t  
t h t m p r t r e s l w a d t h e t t f n z a t n s  
l y p r i a l d c a n b e m a i n t a e d o n l y b y a l a g e  
t i a p t i f e r g y A m e r y a l t e r n a t i  
i t f i n d o m m f e l e c t m n t i c c f i e  
m t f t h p l m a n e c a t e d t h a t i s p a r  
t u l e s e t t h t h c h a m b e w a l l E f f e t i  
c o f i e m e t i s t h p m e b j e t i o f h i g h t e m

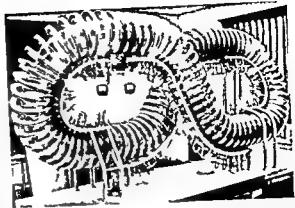


Fig 2 S i l i t h f g e s h p p t i  
t i d f t f t h p l m

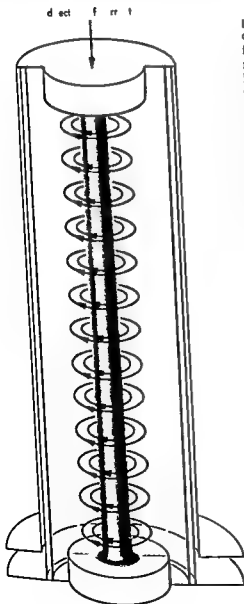


Fig 1 P h f f t C l d g d p l m p  
e v e n t m a g l f f

p r t r e p l a m a r e m r c h a n d i s t h b a s i s f r h o p e s  
o f c h a n g i n g c o n t r o l l d n c l e p o w e r f r m n u c l e a r  
f i n r e c t o i s h o t p l a s m a W i t h t c h  
m e s h i g h t e m p e r a t u r e p l a m a e n f t o u l d  
b e e d e d w o u l d h v e l y a f l e t i n g e x i t n e e  
t y p i c a l l y l e s t h n a m l l o t h o f a e c o d

M a g n e t i c c o n f i n e m e n t T h e p i c h e f f e t e p r e  
n t s t h e m p l e t e x m p l o f m a g n e t c c o n f i n e m e n t  
i l l s t g e l e t r c u r r e t i s p a s s e d t h r o g h  
t h e b o d y o f t h p l a m a e l f m a g n e t f i e l d c o n  
f i g u r a t i o n o f c l e d r i g s ( s h o w n i n F g 1 ) i s  
c e e t e d P a r a l l e l c u r r e t e l e m e n t s a t t r a c t t h a t i s  
t h b o d y f c e  $J \times B$  ( $J = c u r r e n t d e n s i t y B =$   
 $m a g n e t i c f i e l d s t r e n g t h$ ) i s a l w a y s w a r d l y d  
e t e d t h c o t t i n g t h p l m F r m a n o t h e  
p o t o f w t h m a g n e t i c l i e o f f r b e  
h a g a e l t u b d s u n d t h e p l a m a c o l  
u m n d p d a h p s t r e w h c h r e i t s t h  
o u t w d l y d r t d k i n e t p r e s e f t h e p l a m a  
T h n t l e q u e d r t b a l a n c e t h p l a s m a p s  
s u e m e n b y t h B e e t t r e l a t i p

$$I = 2 N k T \quad (2)$$

w h e  $I$  i n a m p e  $N$  s t h t t l n m b e o f  
p t l e p e l l c e n t m t f t h p h k  
B l t z m n t a t d  $T$  t h k e t t e m p e  
t e f t h p l m

C f i m e n t f p l m a b y t l l y g e r a t e d  
m g t f i l d s l n b l T w g e i c c  
r d t g h b l

I t h S t l l a r t o r ( n e e d e d b y L. S p t z e J r )  
m p l i f i c c o l l m e n t i a n e d l t b e o f  
m d f i d t d i f f m ( F i g 2 ) I t h S t l l a t  
t g m g n t f i l d p l l t o t h t b e w a l l  
g a t d b y e t e a l l p m t s t h p l m  
f m t h g t h c h a m b w a l l S l g  
t d l m a g t f i l d h l t l i f e n p l m  
m t a l g t h e l f f e t e c e r y t  
l t h t h t e l f T d e c e t a t  
d f t f t h p l m w h h w l d b p t i f t h  
S t l l a r t w t d a m p l e t t h  
f i l d l g a h l l t w t t h b y m e a  
f p l a x l r y l t h S t l l  
b y m k g t h t b t h f r m f f i g e 8

Values of  $\lambda_D$  for typical densities and temperatures

$n$ electrons/cm <sup>3</sup>	$\lambda_D$ cm				$d$ cm ( $1/n$ ) <sup>1/3</sup>
	$T$ (K) { 10 (8.6 eV)	10 (8.6 eV)	10 (8.6 eV)	10 (8.6 eV)	
10	0.22	0.69	0.2	0.69	$1 \times 10^{-2}$
10	0.07	0.069	0.2	0.69	$4.8 \times 10^{-4}$
$10^2$	$2.2 \times 10^{-2}$	$6.9 \times 10^{-2}$	$0.07$	$0.069$	$1 \times 10^{-3}$
10	$2.2 \times 10^{-2}$	$6.9 \times 10^{-2}$	$2 \times 10^{-2}$	$6.9 \times 10^{-2}$	$1 \times 10^{-4}$
10	$2.2 \times 10^{-2}$	$6.9 \times 10^{-2}$	$2 \times 10^{-2}$	$6.9 \times 10^{-2}$	$4.8 \times 10^{-4}$
$10^3$	$2 \times 10^{-3}$	$6.9 \times 10^{-3}$	$2 \times 10^{-3}$	$6.9 \times 10^{-3}$	$1 \times 10^{-5}$

less than  $\lambda_D$  normal Coulomb attraction or repulsion will exist and one can define the encounter as a simple collision to which the ordinary laws of particle dynamics apply (see COLLISION). However if the minimum distance of approach of two particles is greater than  $\lambda_D$  the collective motions of the surrounding plasma electrons induced by the passage of the particle will be such as to screen the test particle from feeling the influence of the other particle (or any others beyond the distance  $\lambda_D$ ).

The length  $\lambda_D$  depends on the density  $n$  and the kinetic temperature  $T$  of the plasma electrons. It is usually defined through the relationship

$$\lambda_D = \sqrt{kT / 4\pi n e^2} \quad \text{cm} \quad (\text{cgs units}) \quad (1)$$

where  $e$  is the charge on the electron and  $k$  is Boltzmann's constant.

Values of  $\lambda_D$  for typical plasma densities and electron kinetic temperatures of interest in laboratory experiments are listed in the table. Kinetic temperature refers to a measure of temperature in terms of the kinetic energy of random motion of the particles of gas. In a Maxwellian gas the mean kinetic energy  $\bar{W} = \frac{3}{2} kT$  where  $T$  is the absolute temperature in degrees Kelvin (see KINETIC THEORY OF MATTER). A convenient measure of  $\bar{W}$  is the electron volt so that kinetic temperature is often measured in electron volts. 1 eV kinetic temperature =  $kT = 11,600$  K =  $-3 \bar{W}$ .

In the last column of the table the approximate mean particle separation  $d = (1/n)^{1/3}$  is given for comparison. Except at the highest densities  $\lambda_D$  is seen to be substantially larger than  $d$  corresponding to the fact that many particles are contained within a Debye sphere so that each particle lies within collision range of many other particles at any given time. This is of importance to the understanding of certain collision effects in a plasma.

The numerical value of  $\lambda_D$  provides an important criterion by which to decide whether in a plasma of given size collective phenomena are to be expected. Certainly if the overall dimensions of a region containing plasma are small compared to  $\lambda_D$  only simple collisional or single particle behavior is to be expected the plasma will behave as an ordinary low density gas and collective processes will not be important. Conversely if the

dimensions of a plasma region are very much larger than  $\lambda_D$  the possibility exists for collective plasma phenomena. Thus as seen from the table in the laboratory where dimensions are measured in centimeters plasmas with electron densities less than about  $10^8$ - $10^9$  cm<sup>-3</sup> would not be expected to exhibit collective behavior. The electron densities which are typically encountered in conventional particle accelerators. On the other hand, in the earth's upper atmosphere  $\lambda_D$  could be much smaller than other typical dimensions for all electron densities higher than a few electrons per cm<sup>3</sup>. In such cases collective effects could be expected to be possible even at the lowest particle densities encountered.

The condition just given admits of another simple and useful physical interpretation. Consider a sphere of plasma with radius  $\lambda_D$  and assume that nearly all of the electrons of the plasma are removed to infinity from this region. The removal of these electrons will leave an uncanceled positive charge and a resulting radial electric field. From the definition of  $\lambda_D$  it is then easily shown that in this case the energy necessary to remove the additional electrons from the plasma is (within a factor of two) equal to their mean kinetic energy. It follows that if  $\lambda_D \ll$  the plasma dimensions and influence which tends to separate the bulk of the plasma charges by a distance greater than  $\lambda_D$  will give rise to strong electrostatic restoring forces which will prevent any further separation. Conversely if  $\lambda_D \gg$  the plasma dimensions the electrostatic forces arising from even a complete separation of charge will have little influence on the motions of the individual charges so that collective effects will be unimportant.

#### CREATION OF A PLASMA

To create a plasma in the laboratory it is usually necessary to start with an ordinary gas at a small fraction of atmospheric pressure and then to heat it by electrical or other means until the mean kinetic energy of the gas particles becomes comparable to the ionization potential of the gas (see IONIZATION POTENTIAL). Mutual collisions of the gas particles will then result in a cascade ionization of the gas. Since ionization potentials are always several volts such effects are only important at kinetic temperatures of several electron volts so that the three hold temp

# PARTICLE DYNAMICS IN PLASMAS

Magnetic confinement of a plasma is a magnetic field and other characteristic of plasma is better understood by returning to the microscopic picture. Each charged particle of the plasma is in the motion of electromagnetic field. In the combination of the external applied field, the electric and magnetic fields produced by the plasma itself. In many cases, the interaction of the field is well enough known to predict the motion of the particle. The motion of a charged particle in a magnetic field is given by the Lorentz force law:

$$\mathbf{F} = q(\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B}) \quad (7)$$

In the case of a uniform magnetic field  $\mathbf{B}$  and a uniform electric field  $\mathbf{E}$ , the motion of a charged particle is determined by the solution of Eq. (7). For a uniform magnetic field, the motion is a combination of a circular motion in the plane perpendicular to  $\mathbf{B}$  and a linear motion along  $\mathbf{B}$ . The circular motion is called gyration and the linear motion is called drift. The drift velocity is given by:

$$\mathbf{v}_d = \frac{c}{B^2} \nabla \phi \times \mathbf{B} \quad (8)$$

The drift velocity is perpendicular to the magnetic field and to the electric field.

$$\omega = \frac{qB}{m} \quad (9)$$

The frequency of gyration is called the gyrofrequency.

Corresponding to the electric field, the particle has a drift velocity given by:

$$\mathbf{v}_E = \frac{c}{B^2} \nabla \phi \times \mathbf{B} \quad (10)$$

The drift velocity is perpendicular to the magnetic field and to the electric field.

$$\omega = \frac{qB}{m} = 3.4 \times 10^8 / B \text{ (in Gauss)} \quad (11)$$

$$\omega = 1.4 \times 10^8 / B \text{ (in Gauss)} \quad (12)$$

At the same energy and field strength  $r$  is only 0.34 mm. This can be written as  $\omega = 9.5 \times 10^8 \text{ rad/sec}$  and  $\omega = 1.75 \times 10^8 \text{ rad/sec}$ .

Returning to the equation of motion, Eq. (7), one may now precisely define the motion under which the particle is obtained. It is only required that the field be slowly varying compared with the period of a small amount per cent of the orbit radius that is:

$$\left( \frac{1}{B} \frac{\partial B}{\partial t} \right)^{-1} \gg 1/\omega \quad (11)$$

$$\lambda = \left( \frac{1}{B} \frac{\partial B}{\partial r} \right)^{-1} > r \quad (12)$$

The so-called conditions of adiabaticity for the particle motion.

If the conditions are satisfied, the energy and momentum of the particle are conserved. The energy is the sum of the kinetic energy and the potential energy. The momentum is the sum of the linear momentum and the angular momentum. The conditions are satisfied if the magnetic field is slowly varying compared with the period of the particle motion and if the magnetic field is slowly varying compared with the radius of the particle motion.

Drift velocities. A particle in a magnetic field has a drift velocity. The drift velocity is perpendicular to the magnetic field and to the electric field. The drift velocity is given by:

$$\mathbf{v}_d = \frac{c}{B^2} \nabla \phi \times \mathbf{B} \quad (13)$$

The derivation of Eq. (13) from Eq. (7) follows immediately if it is noted that the magnetic field is slowly varying compared with the period of the particle motion and if the magnetic field is slowly varying compared with the radius of the particle motion. The drift velocity is perpendicular to the magnetic field and to the electric field. The drift velocity is given by:

The drift velocity is perpendicular to the magnetic field and to the electric field. The drift velocity is given by:



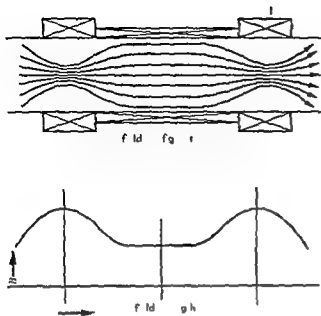


Fig 3 Magnetic mirror. The half in the upper part represents the path of a particle in the plasma. The curve below represents the magnetic field strength  $B$  along the path of the particle.

2. The mirror machine (invented by R. F. Post) allows confinement in a tube with ends "plugged" by magnetic mirrors (Fig. 3). A magnetic mirror is merely a localized region where the magnetic field is made much stronger than average so that charged particles tend to be reflected as they approach the mirror. The magnetic mirror effect is well known from cosmic ray physics, where it is encountered in the reflection of cosmic ray particles by the earth's magnetic field. It has more recently been identified as the explanation of the trapped particle or Van Allen radiation belts of the upper atmosphere where the earth's dipole magnetic field creates a natural mirror machine. See COSMIC RAYS, VAN ALLEN RADIATION.

**Pressure balance and diamagnetism.** The magnetic confinement of a plasma can be identified with a diamagnetic effect associated with the plasma, that is, the introduction of a plasma into a region containing a magnetic field tends to weaken the magnetic field in that region (see DIAMAGNETISM). This effect is readily seen in the pressure balance relationship for a confined plasma if a (usually) small effect arising from the curvature of magnetic lines is neglected; this relationship is

$$\nabla \left( p + \frac{B^2}{8\pi} \right) = 0 \quad (3)$$

where  $p$  is the local value of the component of the plasma pressure perpendicular to the line of force and  $B$  is the local field strength. This expression, which shows the constancy of the sum of the plasma pressure and the magnetic pressure, can be integrated to yield

$$p + \frac{B^2}{8\pi} = \text{const} = \frac{B_0^2}{8\pi} \quad (4)$$

where  $B_0$  is the strength of the magnetic field just outside the plasma. There exist an infinite number of allowed solutions to this equation, so that other circumstances such as diffusion will dictate the actual equilibrium solution in any given physical case.

It is clear from Eq. (4) that the plasma pressure can never exceed  $B^2/8\pi$ . This value corresponds to a complete diamagnetic exclusion of the magnetic field from the plasma. Other circumstances such as plasma instabilities may impose additional limitations on the plasma pressure leading to values less than  $B_0^2/8\pi$ . A convenient representation of Eq. (4) can be given in terms of a parameter  $\beta$  which is defined as the ratio of plasma pressure to externally applied magnetic pressure

$$\beta = \frac{p}{B_0^2/8\pi}$$

In terms of  $\beta$ , Eq. (4) becomes

$$\beta = \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{B}{B_0} \right)^2 \right] < 1 \quad (5)$$

The parameter  $\beta$  measures the effect which the plasma can have on the applied field. If  $\beta < 1$ , the applied field will be only slightly affected by the presence of the plasma.

The diamagnetic effect of a plasma arises from persistent electric currents flowing throughout its volume. In fact, the magnetic confinement force is just the body force  $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{B}$ . But the existence of currents in the plasma must imply a dissipation of energy. Thus, unless maintained, the confining currents will decay with time so that plasma and magnetic field will gradually intermingle, leading to eventual escape of the plasma. Magnetic confinement of a plasma is therefore necessarily a transient process with a time scale set by the electrical conductivity of the plasma. This situation is analogous to the low penetration of a suddenly applied magnetic field into a large metallic conductor. The application of the field induces eddy currents in the surface of the conductor which decay with time, leading to the eventual penetration of the field.

The effectiveness of a magnetic field in confining a hot plasma for a long time depends on the electrical resistivity of the plasma. This is given theoretically by the approximate expression

$$\rho \approx \frac{6 \times 10^{-9} Z}{T^{3/2}} \text{ ohm cm} \quad (6)$$

where  $Z$  is the mean ionic charge. Theoretically,  $\rho$  is independent of density, a result which cannot be expected to hold at very low plasma densities. Not only that, plasma has a negative temperature coefficient of resistivity. At 10 K, a hydrogenic plasma has a theoretical resistivity about a thousand times greater at room temperature and at temperatures of 10 K or higher it is negligible.

section at a point where the field is  $B_0$  is

$$\frac{B(0)}{B_0} = \frac{B_0}{B_0} = \frac{1}{R} \quad (20)$$

where  $R$  is called the mirror ratio. Thus since

$$\frac{W_{\perp}(0)}{W} = \frac{v^2}{v^2} = \sin^2 \theta \quad (21)$$

$\theta$  being the pitch angle of the helix at  $B = B_0$  the condition that a particle be reflected at or before it penetrates to  $W$  is just that the pitch angle should be greater than a critical angle  $\theta_c$  where

$$\sin \theta_c = \frac{1}{R} \quad (22)$$

This condition is independent of charge mass or total energy of the reflected particle except as limited by the requirements of the adiabatic assumption. It is equally easy to show that in the general case the pitch angle  $\theta$  transforms in a certain way with the relation  $h p$

$$\sin \theta(u) = [R(u)]^{1/2} \sin \theta(0) \quad (23)$$

where  $R(u) = B(u)/B(0)$ . Equation (22) follows by using  $\theta(u) = \pi/2$  (reflection). Equation (23) resembles Self's law of optics with  $R$  playing the role of the index of refraction.

Returning to the question of magnetic mirror reflection it is apparent that if two magnetic mirrors are used at each end of a vacuum chamber filled with charged particles (plasma) can be trapped in the magnetic bottle between the two mirrors provided the particles satisfy the pitch angle requirements. This is the mirror machine. If a plasma contains particles with a distribution of pitch angles we can be suddenly interested in a magnetic bottle filled with particles less than  $\theta_c$  would be immediately trapped. The number of particles would be trapped however it depends on the charge mass energy and could be as small as a few particles. At high temperature the process is predicted to be quite slow.

Another consequence of the conservation of  $\mu$  for a plasma heated by magnetic compression is that it has already been pointed out that an increasing magnetic field will compress a plasma which tends to maintain constant flux through its volume. This property also holds for the flux threading each orbit. Since  $\mu = W_{\perp}^2 / B$  is constant and  $\sim (1/B) W_{\perp}^2$  this implies that  $B r \sim W_{\perp}^2 / B =$  constant, that is the flux through the orbit circle is a constant. The heat effect follows simply by noting that since  $\mu$  is constant  $W_{\perp}$  must increase in direct proportion to  $B$ . This is the process of adiabatic compression. Heating often included in this literature.

To complete the list of adiabatic invariants of plasma motion we will mention the Superposition principle. Plasma particles are trapped in magnetic bottles in a certain way because

in the region of weak magnetic field. In the first approximation the drift velocity can be calculated on the basis of the guiding center theory into a figure 8. Thus like the figure 8 in the strip of magnetic field the inside wall of the curve becomes the outside wall of the opposite curve so that the net drift velocity is zero.

Adiabatic invariants. Under the adiabatic condition defined by Eqs. (11) and (12) the three constants of the motion are the so-called adiabatic invariants alluded to earlier. These invariants are useful in predicting many of the details of plasma behavior and have been used as starting points for numerical or theoretical analyses. The importance of these invariants as magnetic moment associated with the rotation of a charged particle in a magnetic field (see MacVetron). A more general case presents a certain difficulty in connection with which is associated with pole magnetic field similar to that of a simple loop current. By analogy to Lenz's law the current loop always has a magnetic field that it tends to oppose its change. The field lines of the loop so that the assembly of charged particles plasma usually exhibit a bulk diamagnetic effect arising from the net moment of the individual particle diamagnetic effects.

The magnetic field  $\mu$  is given by the expression

$$\mu = W_{\perp}^2 / B \quad g/g \text{ us} \quad (17)$$

The magnetic moment  $\mu$  may be expected to be conserved in the absence of collisions (11) and (12). The effect of collisions is to cause a diffusion of the magnetic moment from the maximum flux to the minimum flux. The magnetic moment is conserved in the absence of collisions. The magnetic moment is conserved in the absence of collisions.

$$\left| \frac{d\mu}{dt} \right| = a e^{-\mu} \quad (18)$$

where  $d\mu/dt$  is the rate of change of  $\mu$  and  $a$  is a constant. The rate of change of  $\mu$  is proportional to  $1/\mu$ . The rate of change of  $\mu$  is proportional to  $1/\mu$ . The rate of change of  $\mu$  is proportional to  $1/\mu$ .

The adiabatic invariants can be calculated by using the guiding center theory. The adiabatic invariants can be calculated by using the guiding center theory. The adiabatic invariants can be calculated by using the guiding center theory.

$$\mu = \frac{W_{\perp}^2(0)}{B_0} = \frac{W_{\perp}^2(W)}{B_W} = \frac{W_{\perp}^2}{B_W} \quad (19)$$

The temperature of the plasma is a function of the magnetic field. The temperature of the plasma is a function of the magnetic field. The temperature of the plasma is a function of the magnetic field.

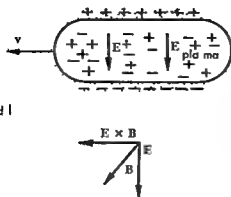


Fig 4 Schematic illustration of drift of a plasma across a magnetic field in vacuum

slight separation of charges (Fig 4) is all that is required to generate an internal polarization electric field in the plasma which maintains the velocity. However if the plasma passes into a strongly conducting region (another plasma) the polarization fields would not persist and the motion would stop the momentum being taken up by the magnetic field or converted into rotation.

In another case if a plasma is immersed in a magnetic field which is then increased slowly an induction electric field will appear which will cause the plasma to be compressed toward the magnetic symmetry axis of the system (where  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$ ). In a uniform magnetic field of circular cross section this would result in a uniform radial compression of the plasma. Throughout the process the flux through the plasma would remain constant (ignoring diffusion effects).

These illustrations point up the importance of the  $\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}$  drift velocity. Any situation in which electric fields appear in the plasma because of induction effects or separation will produce this drift. In some cases drifts of this kind can be self-perpetuating (charge separation leading to a drift leading to more charge separation and so on) so that a plasma instability results. In other cases the  $\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}$  drift is accompanied by plasma heating as in the example of the magnetic compression given earlier.

If the magnetic field in which the plasma particles move is inhomogeneous other drift motions occur. If there is a gradient of the magnetic field strength perpendicular to the direction of the field the radius of curvature of each particle will clearly be smaller on the high field side of its orbit than on the low field side and a slow transverse drift perpendicular to the directions of both  $\nabla B$  and  $B$  will occur. Since oppositely charged particles spiral in opposite directions this drift will be oppositely directed for electrons and positive ions so that it produces a tendency for charge separation to occur. The magnitude of the drift is given by

$$v_b = \frac{r v_\perp}{2} \left( \frac{\nabla_\perp B}{B} \right) \quad (14)$$

As the charged particles move in helical paths along the magnetic lines of force they may encounter regions where the flux tubes (bundles of magnetic lines) are curved. While the particles are being guided around these curves by the magnetic field centrifugal forces will arise which will produce a drift. The centrifugal drift is also oppositely directed for ions and electrons and has the magnitude

$$v_c = v_\perp / R \quad (15)$$

where  $v_\perp$  is the velocity of motion of the particle along the lines of force and  $R$  is the local radius of curvature of the magnetic lines.

The centrifugal drift is an example of a more general gyroscopic kind of drift that can be expected to arise in situations where the plasma particles are subjected to a force which is perpendicular to the local field direction. Another example is the drift velocity  $v_g$  which will occur in the presence of a gravitational field. The magnitude of this drift velocity is

$$v_g = g / \omega \quad (16)$$

where  $g$  is the component of gravity perpendicular to the magnetic field. In strong magnetic field  $v_g$  is very small but it may play a role in geophysical phenomena in the upper atmosphere.

It is essentially impossible to study a confined plasma in the laboratory without encountering magnetic field gradients and therefore simulating the drifts  $v_b$  or  $v_c$ . Since either of the electric drifts can give rise to charge separation effects unless care is taken in choice of the field configuration electrostatic fields within the plasma can be set up which will cause the  $\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}$  drift  $v$  to occur leading to a rapid escape of the plasma. A classic example is the simple torus with magnetic field lines parallel to the torus walls as shown in Fig 5. This geometry the forerunner of the Stellarator is characterized by a magnetic gradient which is everywhere inwardly directed (the field at the inner wall of a simple torus is always stronger than at the outer wall since the line integral  $\oint \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$  is the same for all paths taken around the inside of the torus). Thus if a plasma is confined in a simple torus upward and downward drift motions will tend to occur as predicted by producing a vertically directed electric field and a subsequent common outward drift of the plasma toward the outer wall that

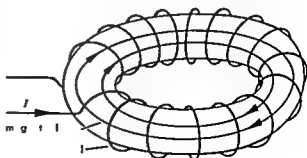


Fig 5 Magnetic field in simple torus



and forth between limits (as in the mirror machine). It can then be shown that the so-called action integral is an adiabatic invariant. The integral is just the line integral of the momentum component parallel to the direction of the field taken along the path of the guiding center that is

$$\oint p_{\parallel} du = A = \text{const} \quad (24)$$

The action integral has the dimensions of an area in  $p_{\parallel} u$  (phase) space. Its constancy implies that this area is a constant. Physically it simply means that as a trapped particle moves about in the confinement volume its guiding center motion must always be such as to keep the phase space area constant (Liouville's theorem see STATISTICAL MECHANICS). If axial compression occurs this implies that the axial momentum must increase correspondingly (see Fig. 6). One of the important results of adiabatic theory is to show that the constancy of  $A$  implies that in the absence of collisions and for slowly varying fields the drift motion of trapped particles in a magnetic bottle (such as the earth's magnetic field) is such as to generate an imaginary fixed closed surface for each trapped particle to which it would be forever bound. The now famous Argus experiment provided a substantial degree of confirmation of these ideas.

The last adiabatic invariant to be mentioned has already been hinted at. It has been demonstrated that the magnetic flux enclosed by the aforementioned surfaces which are generated as a consequence of the constancy of  $A$  is also an adiabatic invariant. This fact is very useful in analyzing novel or complicated magnetic confinement geometries.

In summary of the particle dynamics of plasmas it has been shown that plasma particles in a strong magnetic field are generally constrained to move in helical orbits. In the presence of field gradients and other perturbations they tend to drift from line of force to line of force tracing out closed surfaces as they move about. Throughout

the motion of the plasma particle the collective motion will be constrained to be such as to preserve near equality of total positive and negative charge. Hence any departure from neutrality gives rise to strong electric restoring forces.

**Confinement criteria** With the effect in mind the problem of magnetic confinement may now be stated in detail.

1 To immerse an electrically neutral plasma in a magnetic field sufficiently strong that all particle orbits have diameters small compared with the dimensions of the confinement chamber. This ensures that the particles cannot at once touch the chamber walls.

2 To find a configuration of magnetic field which prevents the rapid escape of the plasma along the magnetic line and yet does not introduce uncanceled drift motions which would cause it to strike the chamber wall. This requires either that the lines of force shall close on themelves (as in the pinch effect or the Stellarator) or that something akin to the magnetic mirror effect be used.

3 To ensure that the plasma can be maintained in a state of stable pre-equilibrium by the magnetic field either by use of very strong field special field configuration or special plasma conditions.

The last mentioned problem is potentially the most difficult one and will be referred to again in the discussion of plasma instabilities.

## WAVES AND INSTABILITIES IN PLASMAS

Because of the coupled nature of the motion of plasma and its electromagnetic field environment it can support unusual oscillatory or wave motion both stable and unstable.

**Stable wave motions** A rough subdivision of the stable wave motions is possible in terms of four characteristic frequencies or periods of a plasma summed immered in a magnetic field. In many typical cases the characteristic frequencies occur in the following order: (i) Interparticle collision frequencies (lowest); (ii) Ion cyclotron frequency; (iii) Electron cyclotron frequency; (iv) The plasma frequency  $= \sqrt{4\pi ne/m}$  (highest). Only a few of the features of wave propagation will be sketched the detail of plasma wave propagation being remarkably complicated. The reader is referred to the now voluminous literature as the subject for further detail.

At frequencies below (i) a plasma would behave as an ordinary gas and propagate simple elastic waves. Such waves would be important only for high density, low temperature or large plasma.

At frequencies between (i) and (ii) a characteristic plasma wave is the hydromagnetic or Alfvén wave is possible. This wave resembles that which would be propagated by a loaded elastic string. Here the string are the magnetic lines of force loaded by the plasma mass (that is, primarily the ion). Satisfying the adiabatic criteria particles are added field drift together (field line sticks to the plasma and vice versa) provide loaded elastic

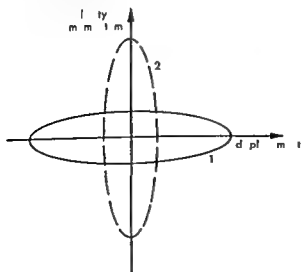


Fig. 6. Schematic illustration of conservation of action (Eq. (24)).

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$$T \propto \gamma \quad (37)$$

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m s e d c l d p l m a O n the o t h e h d i f  
t h m a n r g y l o t h a n i t f t h e l  
t the e l e c t r o n s w l l d t a n

f t h g y b y h t g Th l t t f l e t  
m p o r t c a s w h m p l m a h t i g s m  
p l b e d h t g t h l e c t m t a j o u l  
t e h t n g  
4 e l m n a b d e d w t h p e  
w e n t b o t h t h e f e c t Th

$$\left(\frac{dW}{dt}\right) = -4\sqrt{2} \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{Z^2}{(mkT)^{1/2}} \frac{m}{U} \left(1 - \frac{W}{3kT/2}\right) \quad (38)$$

f l e c t n n g m l l c o m p e d w t h the m  
r g y t h e t e o f i n h t n g (T e v)

is g e n b y

$$\left(\frac{dW}{dt}\right) = 8.8 \times 10^{-8} \frac{Z^2 n}{A^{1/2} T^{1/2}} e / \text{sec} \quad W \ll 3kT \quad (39)$$

When the i n e r g y is s u b s t a n t i l y g r e a t e r t h a n  
t h m e n e l e t o n e n e r g y t h g e r a l x p r e s i o  
t a k e t h e f o r m

$$\frac{1}{W} \frac{dW}{dt} = -5.7 \times 10^{-8} \frac{n Z^2 / A}{T^{1/2}} \text{ sec}^{-1} \quad W \gg T \quad (40)$$

This can be integrated to yield an exp e s i n f o r  
t h e x p o n e n t a l d e c a y o f i o n e n e r g y a s a f u n c t i o n  
f t i m e

$$W = W' e^{-t/\tau} \quad (41)$$

$$\text{w h e r e } \tau = 1.8 \times 10^8 (T / n) (A / Z) \quad (42)$$

I f the l e t r o n t e m p e r t u r e is l o w t m v b e  
q u t e m l l o m p r e d w t h the m e a n i o n i n c o l l i  
s o t i m e a d d t h e r f e w i l l d o m i n a t e the e n e r g y  
x c h a g e t m e s f o h g h e n r g y i n F r x m p l e  
i f = 10 cm and T = 10 e t h e n f o r e n e r g y  
g e t c p r o t m t ~ 5.5 \mu \text{sec} B y c o n t r a s t i f the p  
t o e e g y f r m p l e 10 k e t h e o r r e p o n d  
i n g i n o n \infty t t e n g t m e c a l c l a t e d f r m E q  
(36) r u g h l y 6 m s e c o 1000 t m e s l r g A t n  
l e t r o n t m p r a t e o f l k e h w e t h e t w  
t i m e b e c m e a l t q u a l

Th e p s i f o t h l d a s l o g a the m  
e l o t y l e t h a n t h m e n e l o t y f t h e l e c t  
t o s t a t i s s i n g s

$$W' < (M/m)^{3/2} kT \quad (43)$$

Wh t h s i o t s t f i d t h d y n a m i c l f r i c t i o n  
r a t e m e w h t m a l l r t h a n t h a t j a t p r e d t d  
F g t o n t h o c u s w h n W' = 2760 kT t h a t  
i s n l v a t r h g h e n e r g e s

The e n t i r e q u a n t i t y o f e n e r g y t a n s f e r t e s b e  
t w e n o n n d e l t o s s a e o f g t i m p o r t a c e  
i p l a m a c h i c e m y c s e t h e t e  
a c r t a l n d t e r m i n g t h e e l a t m p r t a n c e  
o f o t h p r c e h a t h e s t e o f l o f e n  
g y f r o m the p l m a b y r d t n (w h h  
f o m t h e l e t r o n) B t s f t h w t n g l m t  
n x p m e t l d a t a t n the f u n d a m e n t a l  
p r o c e s s

# RADIATION FROM PLASMAS

R d i t n p d e s a d e t c l n g m e h m  
f r a h g h t m p e t u p l a m a F t u n a t l y n d e d  
f r t h e f t r e o f p l m a r h t h r y h w s  
t h t a t e n t h h g h t p t a l e d n t u s e d n  
t h l a b i y t h e r d t u r a t e f m a p l a m a  
m h l e s t h t h P l a n k b l a k b d y a l u  
F x m p l e t a d t n t e m p r t u r e o f 10 K  
t h P l a n k r d a t a b e n g p p t o a l t o T  
w l d m u n t t h e a l m t i o n c e a b l v l e o f  
6 \times 10^8 \text{ watt/cm}^2 (e H E A T R A D I A T I O N) B u t  
t h f r s t u t f a t t a t t e u o p l m i o p t i l y  
r y t h i o e r l m s t l l o f t m i s i o p e c t m

Thus

$$\beta < 2(kT/mc^2) < 2(T/511 \text{ kev}) \quad (31)$$

if  $T$  is measured in kev. This is a fairly stringent condition especially at low electron energies. If one still further manipulates the condition it can be shown to be equivalent to the requirement that

$$(r/\lambda_D) < 1 \quad (32)$$

that is the mean gyromagnetic radius  $r$  of the electrons should be less than the Debye length. It has already been pointed out that cooperative effects cannot occur within a distance shorter than a Debye length so this condition is by no means surprising.

In concluding the discussion of instabilities it is important to recognize that at the time of this writing only the grossest features of the theory of plasma instabilities have been corroborated experimentally. Since the question of plasma instability is the greatest potential barrier to effective magnetic confinement the study of instabilities must proceed much farther before even the feasibility of long time confinement is demonstrated.

#### COLLISION PROCESSES IN PLASMAS

In the absence of instability mechanisms which could destroy a state of order in a plasma the drive toward a state of higher disorder comes about through interparticle collisions. The dominant interparticle collision process in a high temperature plasma is Rutherford scattering elastic scattering arising from the mutual Coulomb electrostatic fields of the charged particles of the plasma. Such processes lead to the deflection of and energy exchange between the plasma particles. These collision processes are important since they determine the basic rate of all collisional transport processes in the plasma. The cross section or effective collisional area  $\sigma$  for close collisions between plasma particles of equal mass and charge can be simply estimated from the classical minimum distance of approach of two equal charges (where mutual potential energy becomes just equal to initial kinetic energy that is  $Z^2 e^2/r_{\text{min}} = W$ )

$$\sigma = -Z^2 e^2 / W \quad \text{cm} \quad (33)$$

However if the classical minimum distance of approach is compared with the value of the Debye length  $\lambda_D$  given in the table it will be readily seen that at the usual particle energies  $\lambda_D$  is typically some  $10^9$  times larger. Thus the probability of a particle colliding with some particle that is distant yet still within the range  $\lambda_D$  is some  $10^{18}$  times larger than that it should make a simple hard close collision. Thus even though the effect of each individual distant encounter (within  $\lambda_D$ ) is infinitesimal the statistical sum of their effects is not and in fact is about 10 times more important than that of close collisions. In the calculation of this effect the logarithm of the ratio  $(\lambda_D/r_{\text{min}}) = 1$  appears. In  $1 \approx 20$  in most cases. One finds for an approximate value of the scatter-

ing cross section owing to distant collisions the value

$$\sigma_d \approx (-Z^2 e^2 / W) (\ln 1/2) \quad (34)$$

Written in terms of the particle energy in ev this becomes

$$\sigma_d \approx 10\sigma \approx 6 \times 10^{-13} (Z/W) \quad \text{cm} \quad (35)$$

where  $W$  is in ev.

Some quantitative values are of interest. If  $Z = 1$  (hydrogen ions or singly charged heavier ion) and if  $W = 1$  ev then  $\sigma_d \approx 6 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^2$  or some 10 to 100 times normal atomic or gas kinetic cross sections. However if  $W = 1$  kev  $\sigma_d$  is  $10^4$  times smaller (almost  $6 \times 10^{-16} \text{ cm}^2$ ) and is already much much smaller than atomic cross section. It can be seen that even disregarding the fourth power dependence on  $Z$  the range of collision cross sections encountered in hot plasmas may be enormous. It follows that the collision mean free path  $d$  can vary over an even more extreme range considering the range of densities which is of interest. For example for a hydrogenic plasma density of  $10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  (about the upper limit for most high temperature plasma studies) and a mean ion energy of 10 ev  $d = 1/n\sigma_d \approx 1.6 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}$  whereas at  $n = 10^{12} \text{ m}^{-3}$  and 1 kev  $d \approx 16 \text{ km}$ . Clearly the physical behavior of the plasma can be expected to be quite different over ranges of temperature and density which may be encountered in even a single experiment. See SCATTERING EXPERIMENTS ATOMIC AND MOLECULAR.

**Relaxation time.** The collision process in a plasma serve to define the rate of randomization of the energy and direction of motion of the plasma particles. One reason that these processes are important is that they act in opposition to magnetic confinement (especially in the mirror machine) and set an upper limit on its duration. From fundamental work by S. Chandrasekhar and Spitzer the so called relaxation time for a large angular deflection or for energy exchange comparable with the original energy of a given ion (or electron) colliding with particles of the same kind can be calculated. To a sufficient approximation this time is given by

$$= 5.7 \times 10^{-10} (A^{1/2}/Z) (W^{1/2}/n) \quad \text{sec} \quad (36)$$

where  $W$  is in ev.

Returning to the numerical examples given in this case one has for protons ( $A = Z = 1$ ) at a density of  $10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  and an energy of 10 ev  $\tau = 1.8 \times 10^{-10} \text{ sec}$  while for electrons ( $A = 1/1836$ )  $\tau = 4 \times 10^{-11} \text{ sec}$  which is a very short time indeed. On the other hand at  $n = 10^{12} \text{ m}^{-3}$  and energy of 1 kev the times become equal to 18 msec and 0.42 msec respectively. It is quite clear that in the first example in the times are small even compared with the cyclotron frequencies of the plasma particles (normally the shortest characteristic time in a magnetically confined plasma) so that the limiting by magnetic compression would be light and magnetic confinement could be essential.





means that as one might expect from Kirchhoff's law radiation is greatly reduced compared with the Planck value so that under the proper circumstances a plasma with a kinetic temperature of 10 K might radiate at a rate equivalent to the radiation rate from a black body at radiation temperatures of only a few hundred degrees K. Nevertheless in many experiments great care must be taken to avoid certain impurity problems in as to keep the radiation from rising to a value where it would overwhelm the means for heating the plasma and keeping it hot.

**Common mechanisms:** Considering collisional processes there exist three important mechanisms for radiation from a plasma.

The first is the generation of x-rays (bremsstrahlung) which occurs when the plasma electrons are deflected by encounters with the ions (see BREMSSTRAHLUNG). The second mechanism is a similar radiation which occurs when electron-electron collisions occur. This process is important only at very high electron temperature where the electron motion becomes relativistic ( $T$  of order  $mc^2 = 511$  kev). The third mechanism which can occur and one which under some circumstances may overwhelmingly dominate the radiation losses is that process which might be called excitation radiation resulting from the collision of electrons with partially stripped ions (ions with remaining bound electrons) with the production of excited states of the bound electrons and subsequent radiation. Electron ion bremsstrahlung can be calculated by the methods of quantum mechanics from which one finds for a Maxwellian distribution the approximate expression for the radiation per unit volume

$$p = 1.4 \times 10^{-16} n_i Z T^2 / \text{watt/cm}^3 \quad (44)$$

Here  $Z$  is the ionic charge and  $T$  is measured in degrees Kel in kinetic temperature. Except at high densities the radiation rate is nominal, being only some 14 milliwatts/cm<sup>3</sup> for a hydrogenic plasma at 10 K and a density of  $10^{20}/\text{cm}^3$  ( $Z = 1, n_i = n_e$ ). At  $n_e = 10^{21}/\text{cm}^3$  this would be 10 times larger, reaching the respectable figure of 14 kilowatts/cm<sup>3</sup>. Also for a plasma composed entirely of higher  $Z$  ions, since electrical neutrality of the plasma requires that  $n_i = Zn$ , the bremsstrahlung radiation rate varies as  $Z$  and would therefore be much larger.

Excitation radiation rates can be calculated if the degree of stripping of the ions in the plasma is known. In the past it has been customary to assume that by the time kinetic temperature of 10–10 K or higher have been reached all atoms in a plasma will have been completely stripped of their bound electrons. In this case there would of course be no excitation radiation emitted. The assumption of complete stripping would be valid for a hydrogenic plasma whose atoms have only a single easily stripped electron. Unfortunately it is not possible to create in the laboratory an absolutely pure hydrogen plasma; there will always ex-

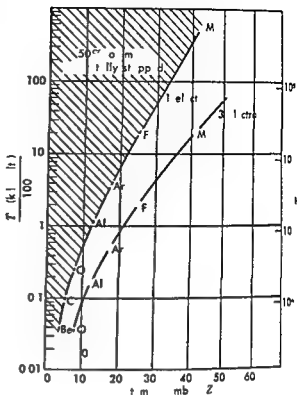


Fig 7 Stripping curve

ist some appreciable number of higher  $Z$  contaminant atoms such as oxygen.

By means of calculations similar to those employed by a trophiscist in calculating the radiation from the sun's corona one can compute the degree of stripping of impurity atoms immersed in a low  $Z$  plasma. It is found that the degree of stripping is much less than one would have intuitively assumed. As a result the role of excitation radiation can be very important even at quite high kinetic temperatures.

In the calculations it is found that the most interesting and hardy ions are those which are stripped down to one to three or four remaining electrons. Using approximate ionization cross sections a stripping curve has been calculated for the expected relative abundances of one electron (hydrogenlike) and three electron (lithiumlike) ions as a function of atomic number and kinetic temperature (Fig 7). The figure shows loci for the curve dividing the region of temperature below which a given atom has one or more bound electrons and for a similar curve for three or more bound electrons. These curves represent steady-state values of the stripping. It will be seen that high  $Z$  impurity atoms become completely stripped only at very high temperatures.

Using calculation of the kind one can determine the expected rate of excitation radiation per impurity atom as a function of kinetic temperature. This should be sufficient for all existing data to obtain the total radiation rate. However it is insufficiently informative to present the results for the two cases (one electron and three electron) together. The results of the calculations are presented in Fig 8. The results are presented as a



description of the casting method of ceramic form ing, see CERAMIC TECHNOLOGY

When the powdered hemihydrate is mixed with water to form a paste or slurry the calcining reaction is reversed and a solid mass of interlocking gypsum crystals with moderate strength is formed. Upon setting there is very little if any dimensional change making the material suitable for accurate molds and models.

The chemical reaction of hydration requires 18.6 lb of water for each 100 lb of plaster of paris; any excess of water over this makes the mixture more fluid and it eventually evaporates leaving a porous structure. In general the greater the porosity the lower the strength of the set plaster. Plaster of paris molds for ceramic casting must have a certain minimum porosity in order to absorb water from the slip; thus for this application the amount of water added represents a compromise between the conflicting properties of high strength and high porosity.

Various types of plaster varying in the time taken to set, the amount of water needed to make a pourable slip, and the final hardness are made for different applications. The characteristics are controlled by the calcination conditions (temperature and pressure) and by additions to the plaster. For example, hydrated calcium sulfate ( $\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) greatly accelerates the setting time and therefore the use of utensils contaminated with plaster is to be avoided. See GYPSUM PLASTER [M C M]

## Plastic deformation of metal

The permanent change in shape of a metal as a result of exceeding the elastic limit. The plasticity of a metal permits it to be molded or pressed without rupture into various forms that are retained after the pressure of molding or pressing has been removed. For a discussion of conditions under which changes in shape are not permanent, see ELASTICITY.

The properties of metals that are associated with plastic deformation are ductility (the ability of a metal to be deformed considerably before breaking), creep (the time-dependent deformation of metal under stress), and malleability (the ductility of a metal under the particular conditions of a given metal-forming operation). See METAL MECHANICAL PROPERTIES OF METAL FORMING.

**Ductility.** A substance is brittle if it breaks without deforming; it is ductile if it can deform considerably before breaking. Ductility is important in metals for two reasons. It permits a metal to be put into commercially desirable shape without breaking and it permits a metal to absorb shocks and blows in service that could break a stronger but more brittle material. One simple measure of ductility is the reduction in cross-sectional area that a metal sample will show when pulled apart in simple uniaxial tension. There are metals that are as brittle as glass, showing virtually

no reduction in cross-sectional area in a tensile test, whereas others will be as ductile as soft stretching out in a tensile test until the cross-section of the sample has contracted to a mere filament. Ductility is not a fixed property of a given metal but will depend upon such factors as the temperature, the speed with which the metal is broken, the size and shape of the metal, impurities that may be present in the metal, the environment in which the metal finds itself, and the manner in which the metal deforms prior to breaking.

In a tensile test the metals crystallize in the face-centered cubic system (for example, copper, aluminum, nickel, lead) are generally ductile at all temperatures and rates of deformation, although even these metals (especially those with large grain size) show some brittleness in some combinations of temperatures and deformation rate, as shown by the valley *AA* in Fig. 1. Since the metal deforms plastically at temperatures below this valley and viscously at temperatures above it, this brittleness is usually associated with the high degree of deformation occurring in the *fe* regions of the internal structure of the metal. Here viscous flow first makes its appearance. The term equicohesive brittleness is usually applied to this phenomenon. A quantitative measure of ductility is the ratio of the cross-sectional areas of the test piece before ( $a_0$ ) and after ( $a_f$ ) the piece failed. Since the range of this ratio is large, the logarithm of the ratio is usually plotted (see Fig. 1, 2, 3, 4) and for theoretical reasons the natural logarithm may be used.

Certain of the close-packed hexagonal metals (notably zinc and cadmium but not titanium or zirconium) and certain of the body-centered cubic metals (notably iron, chromium, tungsten, and molybdenum but not vanadium or tantalum) become brittle at low temperatures and at high deformation rates (Fig. 2). This phenomenon is the basic cause for the dramatic failure of steel structures in cold weather under shock (for example, the breaking in half of the ocean freighter *Flying Enterprise*).

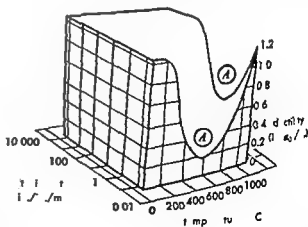


Fig. 1 Ductility of copper as a function of temperature and test speed (measured by the natural logarithm of the ratio of cross-sectional area of test piece before failure ( $a_0$ ) to after failure ( $a_f$ ) as a function of temperature and test speed).



de crip tion of the casting method of ceramic form ing see CERAMIC TECHNOLOGY

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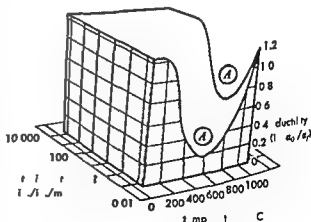


Fig. 1 Ductility of copper as a tensile test (measured by the natural logarithm of the ratio of cross-sectional area of the specimen before and after the test) as a function of temperature and strain rate.

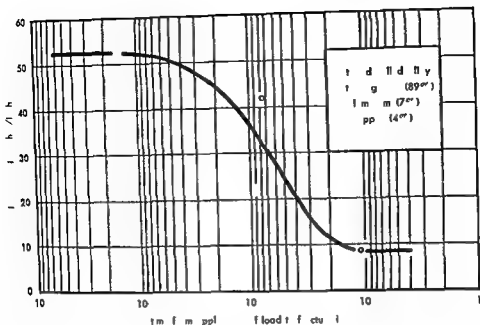


Fig 7 The density of the metal at different temperatures. The curve shows the density of the metal at different temperatures. The curve shows the density of the metal at different temperatures.

The density of the metal at different temperatures. The curve shows the density of the metal at different temperatures. The curve shows the density of the metal at different temperatures.

is all right between the two temperatures. The curve shows the density of the metal at different temperatures. The curve shows the density of the metal at different temperatures.

more easily formed free from most types of brittleness. The curve shows the density of the metal at different temperatures. The curve shows the density of the metal at different temperatures.

h A Q a d R e o n a t t Malleability. The curve shows the density of the metal at different temperatures. The curve shows the density of the metal at different temperatures.

Hith t s d by l q d p h a e s c a b e u t e c t d by t h d d t o f t h d e l m e t s w h h m b n w t h l q d p h e i t e t f m l d t d t b t h e r f t o r l t n h p b t w t h l q d d t h t m e t l A m p l t h t e o f p p e f l d i c r e s w p l y x y g a d d e t p p (F g 8) A

the brittle skin cracks and from this point on the base metal behaves as a notched specimen as shown in Fig 4

**Creep** Creep is the continuing or time dependent deformation that a metal or any substance evidences when put under stress. It is unlike plastic deformation which is fixed (unchanging with time) under stress and permanent (remaining after the stress is removed) and unlike elastic deformation which is fixed and transient (being recovered after the stress is removed). Creep or time dependent deformation is the predominant reaction of metals to stress when temperatures are high that is in the upper half of the temperature range from absolute zero to the melting point of the metal and when stresses are low. Elastic deformation predominates at low temperatures and low stresses; plastic deformation predominates at high stresses. As the temperature approaches the melting point of the metal, creep tends toward a truly viscous phenomenon since the deformation rate tends to become constant under a constant stress. The higher the applied stresses the greater the deformation rate will be according to the formula  $\dot{\epsilon} = As^n$  where  $A$  and  $n$  are constants,  $n$  being far in excess of unity. At lower temperatures creep becomes more complex. After an immediate elastic or plastic response to an applied load, the metal will deform with time at a rate that slowly falls off. The deformation may settle down to what appears to be a steady rate, but ultimately even in tests where the stress is held constant, will accelerate at an ever faster pace until the metal breaks. The terms primary, secondary and tertiary creep are used to describe the stages when the creep rate is falling off, remaining constant or accelerating respectively. The acceleration

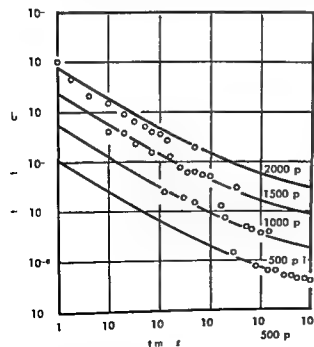


Fig 5 Creep rate of aluminum for four different stresses plotted against time (temperature being constant at 277 C)

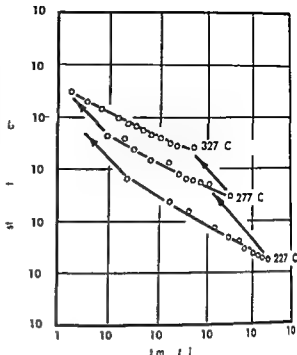


Fig 6 Creep rate of aluminum at three different temperatures plotted against time (stress being constant at 1500 p)

tion of creep rate during tertiary creep is usually ascribed to the breakdown of the internal metal structure as a result of the deformation which has been going on. This breakdown can usually be seen under the microscope as void or crack opening up at grain boundaries or junctures of grain boundaries. Inseparable from the creep phenomenon is creep recovery. A metal that crept under load will recover some of the deformation it accumulated when unloaded. Part of the recovery will be immediate, being purely elastic in nature, but part will slowly accrue with time at an ever decreasing rate.

Although the creep rate varies with time in the more complex forms of creep (at temperatures not close to the melting point of the metal) it can be predicted with fair success for a given temperature or stress if it is known over a given period of time at another temperature and stress. Figure 5 for example shows the logarithm of the creep rate of aluminum plotted against the logarithm of time for four different applied stresses, the temperature being held constant. It is obvious that increasing the stress merely shifts the curve upward without distorting it in any way. Similarly Fig 6 shows the logarithm of the creep rate of aluminum plotted against the logarithm of time for three different temperatures, the stress being held constant. Increasing the temperature in two 50 degree shifts the curve bodily upward and to the left in equal amount. The relations are expressed by the formula

$$\dot{\epsilon} = s f(\exp Q/RT)$$

Here  $\dot{\epsilon}$  is the strain rate in in/in/sec,  $s$  is the applied stress,  $n$  is a constant (equal to 3 in the case of aluminum taken for illustration) and  $f$  is the function





Impurities commonly rendering some metals hot short and their counteractants

Host metal	Impurities producing hot shortness	Counteractant
Iron	Sulfur (0.017)	Manganese
Autrit t n	Lead (0.005)	Oxygen
less steels	Sulfur (0.004)	Magnesium
Nickel	Silicon (0.3)	Magnesium
	Lead (0.004)	Oxygen
Chalt	Alfurf (0.010)	Magnesium
Copper	Lead (0.000)	Oxygen
	Smith (0.000)	Oxygen

The numbers represent the total limits of the impurity (%) which the host metal can tolerate without being

brief resume of some common impurities that render metals hot short and some counteractants to these impurities are assembled in the table  
If impurities render a metal cold short it is usually because they occur as fine precipitates either at the grain boundaries of the host metal or throughout the entire matrix. As noted above, if the hardness of these particles is sufficiently different from that of the matrix they act effectively as holes and embrittle the metal through a notch effect. Fig.

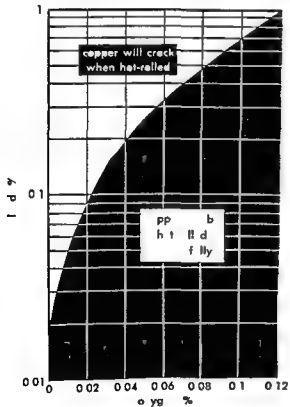


Fig. 8 The chart shows the lead and oxygen contents that copper can tolerate and be hot malleable. The richer copper is in oxygen the more lead it contains and not be hot short. (From W. M. B. Baldwin Jr. Rolling Copper and Copper Alloys, N. F. O'S. Rolling Practice, Am. Inst. Mining Met. Engrs. 1st Metal Ind. Symposium Series of 2, 1948)

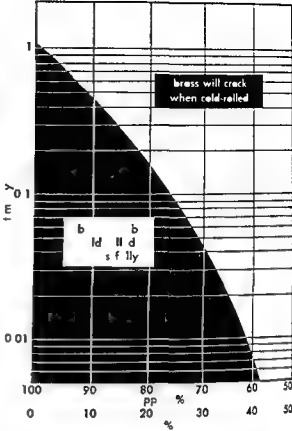


Fig. 9 The chart gives the maximum amount of antimony that brasses of different zinc contents can contain and still be cold malleable. (From W. M. Baldwin Jr. Rolling Copper and Copper Alloys, N. F. O'S. Rolling Practice, Am. Inst. Mining Met. Engrs. 1st Metal Ind. Symposium Series of 2, 1948)

Figure 9 for example gives the maximum amount of relatively hard antimony that may be tolerated in relatively soft brasses of different zinc content if the metal is to be cold rolled. The curve lies just above the solubility curve for antimony in brass. Antimony in excess of its solubility limit appears as a hard precipitate in the grain boundaries of the brass and produces cold brittleness. See METALLURGY, STRESS AND STRAIN [W. M. B.]  
Bibliography: H. C. H. Carpenter and J. M. Robertson, Metals, 2 vols, 1939; L. A. Rotherham, Creep of Metals, 1951.

Plasticity

The property of a solid body whereby it undergoes a permanent change in shape or size when subjected to a stress exceeding a particular value called the yield value. Many solid materials obey Hooke's law at low stresses, but as the stress increases, departures from Hooke's law occur and some plastic flow takes place, that is, the material does not completely recover its original shape or size when the stress is released.  
Plastic behavior is often accompanied by time-dependent effects such as creep (the increase in strain with time at constant stress), stress relaxation (the decay of stress with time at constant strain) and elastic aftereffect or recovery (the gradual decrease to a limit).

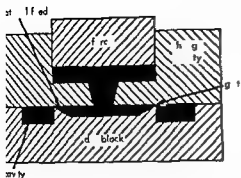


Fig 6 A t f mld (F m C C W d g d L H h Pl st M G w-Hil 1947)

ated with t m r e l e t r i t y t s p p l y h e a t t  
se m l d Th t e s a e f i l l e d w i t h p e d e t  
u n e d m o t i p w d e r p r i m d p e u e  
p p l e d t b g t h e t w h l e s o f t h m l d t o  
; t h t h d p e e f f d i z t h e p l a t i c  
d t h m l d c l s e d e y s l w y u l t i t e a t d  
n t h l n d

The r t t t y p f p l t e s t h r m e t n d  
h r m p l t h f m e t s p u r e w i t h  
h p p l a t t h e t h l t t e e q u e c o l g  
f r e m p l e t l d f i t i The m o t s b e e  
m e d f r m t h m l d u e y h r t l e g t h f  
u m l i a t h e r m p l a t e d t h m l d m t h  
c o o l e d b e f r p n g C m p r s s o m l d i g n  
b e u e d f o m t p l s t m t l b t t m t  
f q u i l y p l y d n m l d p h e l c u r  
m l m e n d t h t h r m e t

T f m l d g Th p c s s m l r t c m  
p m l d g e p t h t f i d i t c c m  
p l h e d t d e c h m b e r a n d t h e f i d  
f e d t t h m l d c i Th d e  
m l d t y p i f y b F g 6 The t a n f e f m t h  
b g e t y t t h p r d e t a t y m p l s h d  
c h t l g f t h p e The t w o m n h l e s f  
t h m l d m t t h f i t d d t n l m m i  
f i t h m p u h t h e f l u d t t h h m c t y  
e f l u d z a t t k p l t s d e t h m l d  
t h r e t a d m d l a t a n e r t m a  
b e d S o m p l a s l w y l i t n t h  
c o n e c t g p t h u m t b e m e d d  
d d d t f t h y l e r p t d Th

method m l l y m p l y d w i t h t h r m e t t g  
p l i c h a s t h e p l y u e a m e l m  
f i t m l d g I n t h p o c a h t t h m o p  
t p l e c t e d t c l d m l d t h b y o b t  
i g t h e e e d f r l i n t y h e t n g d o l g  
t h m l d C n u l p l t m o t e a l p l d i  
h p p e f m h h t f e d p e d e t m s d  
t t y t h t e d h m b l t e d f t o f  
h d u l l y p e r e d p a s F m 7 A f t  
t h m l d l e d t h p l g f r e s t h e p l a t  
t g h t h t d l d e t h t h g h z l  
t t h p t h f t h l f t h m l d d n  
t h u g h t t t h m l d t e s F s  
u p t 25 000 p e d f s t Th  
p l t c o o l p d l y a d o o d f j e t  
Th t y l p e t n m y b e m d t o

matic Fr m l to 300 m of material may l e in  
j e c t e d w i t h e a c h h o t d e p e d g o n t h t e f t h e  
m c h i n e Th s t h e m o t w i d e l y u e d m l d n g  
m e t h d f r t h m p l s t I t i s c a p a b l e f h i g h  
p r o d t n r a t e p a t i c u l a r l y f m u l t i t y m l d s  
e u e d N e a l y a l l f t h e t h e r m p l a t a e o r a n  
b e m o l d e d b y t h i s p r e s

Casting Plast c mater l s c b e c a t b o t h l y t h e  
u s e o f m e l t s i a m a n e r s i m l t o t h a t u e d f o r  
m e t a l s d b y p l y m e r z i g l i q d m m e r i n a  
m o l d A d e s c r i b e d p r e u s l y t h e s a m e t e r i s  
u s e d f i l m f r m a t M t p l a t i c r e n t u f f i  
s e n t l y f i d i z e d b e l o w d e c i m p o s i t i n t e m p e r a t u r e  
t o f i l l m l d s w i t h u t t h e a p p l c a t i o n o f p e t e  
H o w e v e r a f e w p e a l p l a s t c o m p o u n d u c h a s  
c e r t i p h e n l i c e t h y l c e l l e w x m i e t u  
d h i g h l y p l a s t i c c e l l u l o a c e t t e h i t v r t e  
m y b m e l t e d a d p e d i n t o m o l d Th e m a t e r i a l s  
t e r i a l s a c a t a t l e g e p u n h e s d i e n d l l k a  
e d i f r m n g h e e t m e t a l

The c r u n g f r y l a t e s p o l y t y r e e p l y e r s  
a d e p o d e s d e p d s n p o l y m e r z a t i o n r a t h e r  
t h a c l a n g f o r h a d e n m l i q d m n o m e r o r  
p a t i l l y m l y m e r e d o l t n u t l i z i g a m o o m e r  
a s t h e l t m e d w i t h c a t a l y s t a d c a r e f l l y p u r d i s t o m l d C o n d t n a r a d  
j e d s t h a t p o l y m z a t o t k s p l e t t i l y  
l w l y u a l l y t t m p e a t e b l w 70 C S i n e  
t h e c a t n g l i q d h a e l t i l y l o w v i o s t y  
m o l d f i c e s a r p r o d u e d c o u r t e l y I f p o l  
s h e d m l d e u e d a h i g h p l h i b t e d o  
t h f i h e d a r t l P o l h d h e t s o d a d t  
t h e o f l e a r p l y m e t h y l m t h a c r y l t a e o b a  
t i p d b y s n g p l t g l s t l e s t e l m o l d s

C t g a l s d f r p t t i g o e a p s l a  
t a f a i o u s b j e t B l g a l o o t h t y p e  
f p m n s m y b e e m b e d d e d l e a t i g s  
f o r p r e a t o a d d s p l a y E n t e l t a l c r  
u s m a y b e p t t e d b y p l a t h e m i a c n t a e r  
n d p g t h s t g l i q d u n d t h m

Laminating Lam t r p l t i h p c o n  
t i n g f o r g m a t r i a l h a f i b r e l t h  
p a p e r w d e e s T h e y a l l t h w a y f o r m  
r e i n f o d p l s t c t a n g l t h a 10 c f i b e  
t p l y w o d w h c h u l l y t a 8-20 c o f a  
p l s t c h o d g g t T h e m t m m o l a m n t e s  
r m d e f e l l y e r s f p l s t i m p r g n t d  
l o t h p a p e r b n d e d t g e t h e b y h e t n g u d e r  
p e s u e t f l u d t h e p l u u t l i t f m e n

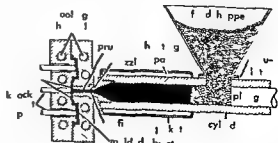


Fig 7 A i t m l d g m h (F m C C W d g d R L H t h P l s M G w-Hil 1947)

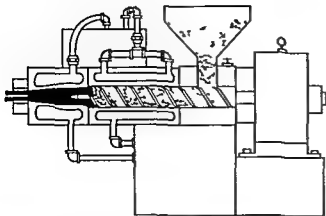


Fig 3    A extruder for plastics (From C C W d g and R L Hasch    *Plastics* McGraw Hill 1947)

of liquid instead of liquid filaments is pumped into the coagulating solution. See FIBER MAN MADE.

**Extrusion.** Film is produced by two extrusion methods: the slot die or sheet method and the large diameter inflated tube process. An extruder is shown in Fig 3. In the slot die method die having openings of as little as 0.005 in. and widths up to 72 in. are used. The plastic material emerges from the die in the form of a hot film which must be cooled rapidly. Thin films cannot be made by this method. Thicknesses vary from 0.005 to 0.250 in. As indicated by the thickness range sheets as well as films can be produced.

**Inflated tube extrusion for film formation** involves extruding a thin walled tube expanding it while hot, cooling, collapsing and slitting the tube lengthwise to produce a film with a width equal to the circumference of the inflated tube. The process is indicated diagrammatically in Fig 4. Inflated diameters from a few inches to 6 ft or more have been used giving film widths up to 20 ft much wider than can be made by any other method. Most polyethylene film used in packaging, building construction and agriculture is made by the inflated tube process. Thicknesses vary from 0.0005 to 0.004 in.

**Coating processes.** Various coating methods are used to apply plastics to fabrics and paper to produce either finished goods or intermediates for other fabrication processes. The simplest of these is dip coating in which a continuous web passes down into a vat containing a plastic solution or a submerged roller and licks up out of the solution. In another method a plastic in solution is poured onto a moving sheet and a knife preader distributes it evenly over the sheet. Other methods are similar to printing processes in which one roll rotates in a solution and transfers the plastic material to an intermediate roll which in turn rolls a coating onto paper or fabric.

**Molding.** The molding of small objects is the application normally thought of when plastic is mentioned although the total tonnage used for films, sheet and laminates is actually greater. Molding involves filling a mold cavity with a plastic fluidized by heat and pressure which is allowed

to solidify to produce an object that requires only finishing operations. With the exception of laminating and sheet forming there are three principal plastic molding processes which convert powder or granules (or simple preform made by compression powders) into finished molded objects.

**Compression molding.** In this process the two halves of molds such as those shown in Fig 5 are attached to the two platens of a hydraulic press, one of which is moved by the ram. The platens are

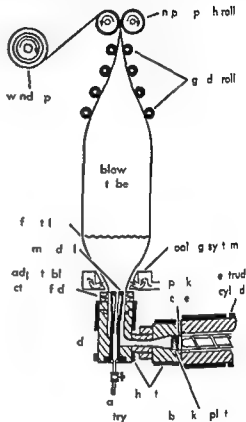


Fig 4    The inflated tube process (USI Indust. Chemicals Co.)

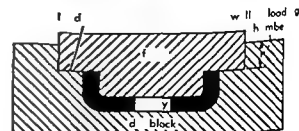
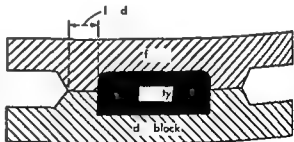


Fig 5    Two types of compression mold (From C C W d g and R L H h Plastics McGraw-Hill 1947)



tinuous phase surrounding the fibers. Mats of fibers may be used in place of cloth or paper.

Both molded and standard shapes may be made by lamination. If a molded shape such as a boat is to be made, a mat of fibers (usually glass) is first laid inside a female mold having the shape of the hull. The fibers are impregnated by pouring a liquid resin over them. A rubber or plastic blanket is then placed over the fibers; the edges are sealed, and the air in the fibers between the blanket and the mold is driven out by a vacuum pump. Since the rubber blanket is flexible, atmospheric pressure pushes the laminate perpendicularly against the mold. The whole mold is then heated to cure the plastic. The heat and pressure forms a strong laminate in the shape of the mold.

A large number of variations of this process are in use. Cloth or wood veneers may be used in place of mats. Matched and metal molds may be used to apply pressure and heat. Chairs and boxes are made by employing glass fiber mats in matched molds. Rubber bags or diaphragms may be inflated with steam so that they press against the laminate. Glass cloth may be laid over a male mold impregnated with a plastic solution and allowed to dry; the process may be repeated until a laminate of the desired thickness is obtained. Different resins which cure to a plastic are used in various modifications depending on temperature available for curing and the kind of laminating material. Polyesters dissolved in a monomer such as styrene require the addition of a catalyst just before use and can be cured at room temperature. Epoxy resins usually require heating and give an excellent product. Phenolics and melamines require heating.

In the production of standard shapes such as large sheets, cloth or paper is first continuously impregnated with a resin solution by the dip coating process previously described. The impregnated material is then cut into sheets (usually 4 × 8 ft) and as many as 10–100 of them piled together and placed in a large press where heat and pressure are applied. Paper laminates may have a printed outer layer for decoration. Such sheets are commonly used for table and desk tops. Cloth and fiber laminates are converted into a variety of industrial products by stamping and machining. Tubes and rods are produced by rolling several layers on a mandrel, removing the mandrel, and curing in split molds. Phenolic, urea, melamine, and polyester plastics are used as impregnating resins; curing is done at 200–350 °F.

Laminates have much higher strength than plastic products which do not contain reinforcing agents. They can be used for building construction, furniture, boats, and other products requiring high strength.

**Extrusion.** An extruder is illustrated in Fig. 3. The die at the point where the plastic emerges may have a variety of shapes in addition to the long slot described under films. Tubes, rod, angles, and many other shapes may be made using special dies. Plastic pipe, tubing, hose, insulated wire, and

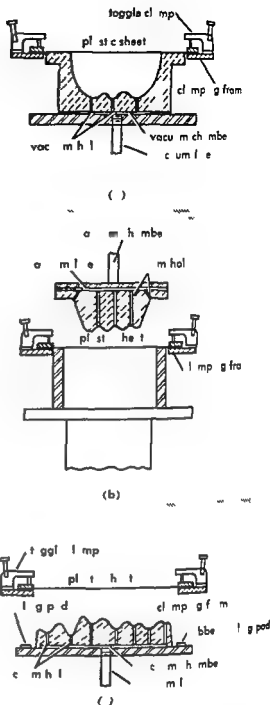


Fig. 8 Three methods of vacuum forming plastic sheets: (a) Cavity type; (b) Force above sheet; (c) Force below sheet. (Eastman Chemical Products Co.)

various profiles for gaskets are made by extrusion. Most thermoplastics can be extruded. Extrusion is relatively inexpensive and the machines are capable of high production rates.

**Sheet forming.** If thermoplastic sheets are heated, they can be distorted easily and then cooled to retain their shape. In the simplest applications, they may be bent over a mandrel or sealed at the edges and blown against a shaped surface with compressed air. Three methods of vacuum forming are illustrated in Fig. 8. In all variations of vacuum forming, either a vacuum which exhausts the air behind the sheet through holes in the cavity or a force is used to bring a heated sheet into contact with a surface having



**Edges clamped** Circular plates fixed in direction at the edges and uniformly loaded are analogous to fixed end beams where negative moments at the end reduce stress and deflection at the center. The moment is greatest at the edge. The maximum radial bending stress at the edges is  $3\mu r/4t$ . For thin plates the elastic deflection at the center is

$$y = \frac{3}{16} (1 - \mu^2) \frac{ur^4}{Et^3}$$

For  $\mu = 0.30$  this is only 24.5% of the deflection of a simply supported plate.

For thicker plates with  $t/r > 0.1$  the above value is multiplied by a factor  $C = 1 + 5.2(t/r)$ . Complete edge fixity is an ideal condition. Because edge rotation is small for simply supported plates only a small relaxation of clamping or local yielding will eliminate most of the fixity and behavior approaches that of a simply supported plate.

**Central load** If the central load is distributed over a circular area of radius  $r_0$  the external forces on a semicircular segment of a simply supported circular plate are the reactions at the rim and the load on the area of application (Fig. 2). The bending moment  $M$  on the diametral section is

$$M = \frac{Pr}{\pi} \left(1 - \frac{2r_0}{3r}\right)$$

and the average stress is  $S_s = 3P/\pi t$ . As the load application area decreases  $r_0$  approaches zero and the average stress approaches  $3P/\pi t$ .

The coefficient to be applied to the average stress to obtain the theoretical maximum stress ( $\mu = 1/2$ ) approaches 1.25 for large values of  $r_0/r$  and is nearly 2.20 for  $r_0/r = 1/20$ .

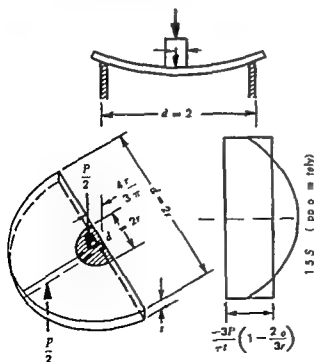


Fig. 2. Simply supported circular plate with load concentrated near center.

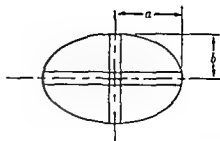


Fig. 3. Elliptical plate.

The theoretical center deflection is

$$y = \frac{3(1 - \mu)(3 + \mu)Pr^2}{4\pi Et^3}$$

With the edges clamped the theoretical maximum stress at the center for  $r > 1.7r_0$  is

$$S = \frac{3(1 + \mu)P}{2\pi t^2} \left( \ln \frac{r}{r_0} + \frac{r_0^2}{4r^2} \right)$$

Yielding at the fixed edges by ductile materials relieves the local stress and the stress after redistribution approaches that of the simply supported plate.

When  $r_0/r$  is small the center deflection is

$$y = \frac{3(1 - \mu^2)Pr^2}{4\pi Et^3}$$

This deflection increases with yielding in support.

**Center support** A circular plate supported at its center with uniform load has a maximum theoretical stress at the center of

$$S_m = \frac{3t}{2t} \left[ (1 + \mu) \ln \frac{r}{r_0} + \frac{1}{4} (1 - \mu) \left( 1 - \frac{r_0^2}{r^2} \right) \right]$$

For  $r/r$  small the term  $r_0/2$  is negligible. Under this condition the center deflection is

$$y_m = \frac{3}{16} (1 - \mu)(7 + 3\mu) \frac{ur^4}{Et^3}$$

When  $\mu = 1/2$  this reduces to  $y_m = ur^4/Et^3$  which is three-fifths of the deflection for the same central load on an edge-supported plate.

**Elliptical plate** In an elliptical plate simply supported at its edges and with uniform load the maximum bending stress and curvature occur in the direction of the minor axis (Fig. 3). If the ellipse is elongated with  $a$  very much greater than  $b$  the plate action approaches that of a simply supported beam with a span of  $2b$ . A central strip of unit width along the minor axis resists a maximum moment of  $ub^2/2$  and the maximum stress in the plate is  $3b/t$ . If  $a$  equals  $b$  the plate is circular and the maximum average stress is  $1.1t/t$ . For intermediate dimensions the coefficient of  $ub^2/t$  varies between 1 and 3. An approximate expression for maximum stress in the direction of the minor axis is

$$S_m = \frac{3a - 2b}{a} \frac{b^2}{t}$$

d m m m a d r then m plus om nonplat  
m gro p met l The p l cer dep nts a e the  
rec l f e r f l i t r a b a : rocks a d a e f und  
n A l s k a C o l o m b a a d the S e t U i n I n C a n  
the p l t i u m m t l e r n the i k l c o p p e  
u f f i d e a e and the production i s d p a d n e n  
t u r l y u p n the d e m a d f i r n k e l The p l a t u m  
c o t e n t o f t h e s e r e s m e w h t b u t i o f t h  
o d r f i l j a r t p e m u l t i n p r e t c l l y a l l o f  
h h e v e r e d T h p l t i n f e o s o e o f S o u t h  
A f r a c o n t a i n m n r a m u t i f c o p p e r a n d  
m k l b t h e s o e s a r e m i n d p m a l y f r t h e s  
p l a t u m c e n t T h S o u t h A f r i c a n g o l d m n  
a l y l d m a l l a m o t o f o m r i d u m c o t a i n  
g a b o t 35% m m a n d 30% r d i u m a d i r  
d o m i w h e t s b u t 40% r d i u m S m a l l  
a m u t o f t h e p l t i u m m t a l s p a l l d u m i n p a  
t u l r e r o e d d u t h e l e t o l y t i c e f i n  
i n g f p p T h m a j o r u c e s o f p l a t i u m m e t  
a l C a n a d a S t h A f r i a , a n d t h e S o v e t  
U n i o n .

The p r i n c i p l p l t i n m m n r a l a e p l a t u m  
s e n i d e (s p y l t e) p l t i m s u l f i d (c p p r  
t ) p t a m p l l d u m n k e l s u l f i d e (b r a g  
g t ) a t v p l a t i u m o m r i d u m d i d m n e

Uses T h p l a t i m g r u p m e t l s h a e w i d e i n  
d u s t r a l u e b e c a u o f t h e i r a l t a y t c a c t i v i t y  
h i m c a l i n e r t e s s a n d h i g h m e l t i n g p o i n t s A s a  
h a l y t , p l a t u m m i s u s e d n h y d r o g e n d e h y  
d r g e n a t i m e z a t n c y c l z a t i o n d h y d a  
t u d h l g t i n n d i d a t o c i o n s  
F i n e l d i v i d e d p l a t i m n a l u m i n u m i d e s e d  
t p g r d i t o t a t i s g f g l b y a t l y t  
i l l y c l r t g a e m p l x m e f d e h y d r o  
g e n t h y d g n t s m e r z i n a n d y l  
z a t i r e t s P l a t i m b d u m l l y g z  
r e u e d i n t h a t a l y t x i d a t i s a m m o t o  
f r m i t e s e d o x d o f m i r g n W h t h  
p r o c e s i s r i e d o t i n t h p r e s e n c e o f m e t h a n  
h y d o c y s a d f o r m d P l t i u m a c t a l y t  
i n t h e l d o i e t p o c e s f i r m a k g s l f u c  
a n d t h e n e a l t h o n m n x i d e s t a b n  
d d b y c o m b i n a t i o n w i t h o x y g e n t h e c o m b i  
t i f h y d g n d v g n i f o m w a t e r t h e  
e d t u n f n t r g u p t a d t h r m o a l f  
t a (I I) o x d f m g t r e a m b y t n  
t h h y d g n t f r m n t g e n a d w a t P l a t  
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p e c t u r e d m i t h e c f i b e x t q u i p  
m e n t l m l i i t u r g a n d t r u d g m o l t  
g l t h r m o r u p l e e t a s t h m m e t  
l e t r i l c o n t i d n i l n d m e d l d e e  
c o r r o g e n t i s l a b o r a t r y t l e l t r i  
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r u p t e d k n d g i d s f p e c l p u p u m  
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u e d i t h m n f i r f l a b o r a t r y i n l F  
j o u n r y 5-10% d i m o a 5% r t h e m a l l y  
u e d T h 10% h o d u m l l o y i e d n t h m o

c u p l e a m m o i x d t i n c a t a l y s t s p n n e r e t s  
f u n c w i n i n g s n d f r m o l t e n g l a s h a d l i g  
q s p m e t A 13% r h o d i u m a l l o y i s o u s e d f r  
t h e m o c u p l e A 4% t n g e n a l l o y i s u s e d a s  
h e a v y d u t y e l c o d e i n a i r c r a f t a n d i n d u t r i a l  
g r k p l u g s

Chemical and physical properties The a t m i c  
n u m b e r f p l a t i n m i s 78 a t o m i c w e i g h t 195.09  
d e n s i t y 21.45 g/c m m e l t i n g p o i n t 1769 C b o i l i n g  
p o i n t 4530 C, a n d e l e t r c a l r e i t i v i t y 106 m i  
c o h e s i o n p e r c e n t m t t 0 C. R a d i a t i v e t o p o  
o f t h e f o l l o w i n g m a n u m b s a e k n w n 187  
188 189 190 191 193 197 a n d 199 T h t a b l e  
i s t p f p l t i n u m h a e t h e m a s n u m b e r 192  
194 195 196 a d 198 T h n a t r a l a b u n d a n c e o f  
t h e e a e 0.8 30.2 35.3 26.6 a n d 72% r p e c  
t i v e l y P l a t u m n o t i t a k e d a t r o m t m p e r a  
t u r b y a n y s i n g l e a c i d b u t i t r a d l y d i s s o l v e d  
b y h o t a q u r e g i A l t h o u g h i t s r e s t a n t t o h y  
d r o g e n c h l o r i d e t e l e a t e d t e m p e r a t u r s i t d o e s  
r a t w i t h c h l o r i n e a t a b o u t 500 C. I t i s e s s e n t i a l  
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3+ 4+ a n d 6+ T h e 2+ a n d 4+ v a l e n c e s a r e  
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p o g y f o r m b y t h r m l l y d o m p i g a m m n i m  
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s o l t I n t h i s f r m i t e x h i b i t s h a t s o p l e  
p o w e r f o g a s e s p e c i a l l y x y g h y d o g e n a n d  
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d r o g e n d f l u s t h r u g h h i t e d p l t u m P l t i n m  
h a s t g t e n d e n y t f o r m n d t o o m  
p u d

Metallurgical extraction There i s n o s i m p l e  
m e t h o d f o r t h e e x t a t i o n o f p l t i u m T h e m e t h o d  
u s e d i s d e p e n d e n t u p o n t h e t a r t g m t r i a l  
w h i c h m a y b e s a p r e d a t a l y t a l m a r e l t  
i g f m n i k l e c p p n e s g e r d p l a t  
n m r t h e r y e x t r a c t v m r d m o i d o s  
m n e T h e p l t i n m a n b e x t a t e d w i t h a q u  
g a n a m s e i n t h e r i t m b n e e  
s a r y t o f m e t h w i t h a u t l e f l x a d t  
c o l l t t h p l t i u m g r o u p m e t l s a c r i e  
u h a p p r l a d W h e n a h y d h l o v e a c i d  
s o l u t i o n o f p l a t u m i s a d e d a d t h e n m a d e  
b a r m s t f t h e i m p u r i t e s p p t t e h y  
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i m l a p i s a t n a b b t n d b y r t u g  
t h p l a t n m i t h h a t t o m p l w h h  
d e o s p p t a t e n b f u t o n W h n a h  
d o h l o a c d l t n f p l a t u m (I V) i t e t d  
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n a t T h e h l p l t i a t i r e d i y n t d t  
t h m t a l b y t h e r m l d c o m p t o P l a t u m c a n  
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t o f t a l t s b y m c m a g n e t a o r l  
m m m T h p l t i u m d i l t a q u e s o l u t i o n  
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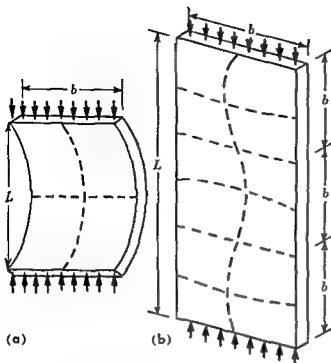


Fig 7 Buckling of plates due to distributed loads on ends (a) Edges free (b) Edges simply supported

ture side of the panel The expression takes the form

$$M/\text{unit width} = \lambda(w/8)(L - 2d_0/3)^2$$

where  $d_0$  is diameter of the column and  $\lambda$  has different values according to the location

**Buckling of flat plates** Thin plates subjected to compression loads in the plane of the plate become unstable at a critical elastic stress and suddenly deflect laterally or develop local wrinkling. This susceptibility to buckling depends upon the material constants ( $E$  and  $\mu$ ) the ratio of thickness to width or length of the plate and the edge restraint. See COLUMN.

A wide thin plate with load uniformly distributed along opposite ends free to rotate buckles in primary bending about the longitudinal axis as a long column (Fig 7). The critical stress initiating buckling is

$$S = \frac{\pi^2 E t^2}{12(1 - \mu^2)L^2}$$

In the inelastic range  $E$  is replaced by the tangent modulus  $E$ .

A square plate loaded along opposite ends with edges simply supported so as to be free to rotate but maintained straight buckles with both lateral and longitudinal curvature. The elastic buckling stress for a square panel with  $b = L$  is

$$S = \frac{\pi^2 E}{3(1 - \mu^2)} \left(\frac{t}{b}\right)^2 L$$

This is four times as great as for an edge-free square panel. For long panel under end compression with all edges simply supported the critical buckling stress depends on the  $L/b$  ratio and such

panels will buckle into a series of equivalent square panels when  $L/b$  is a whole number (Fig 7b). The general equation for critical elastic buckling stress is  $S = \lambda E(t/b)^2$  where  $\lambda$  is a constant depending on edge restraint obtained by the theory of elastic stability. For long panel with simply supported edges  $\lambda$  may be taken as 3.60.

For inelastic buckling an effective modulus replaces  $E$  in the elastic formulae such as  $\sqrt{E E_t}$  where  $E_t$  is the tangent modulus [W. J. KR.]

**Bibliography** A. Morley *Strength of Materials*, 11th ed. 1954. F. B. Seeley and J. O. Smith *Advanced Mechanics of Materials*, 2d ed. 1957. F. R. Shanley *Strength of Materials* 1957.

## Plateau

Any elevated area of relatively smooth land usually the term is used more specifically to denote an upland of subdued relief that on at least one side drops off abruptly to adjacent lower land. In most instances the upland is cut by deep but widely separated valleys or canyons. Small plateaus that stand above their surroundings on all sides are often called tables, tableland, or mesas. The abrupt edge of a plateau is an escarpment or especially in the western United States a rim. In the study of landform development the word plateau is commonly used to refer to any elevated area especially one underlain by nearly horizontal rock strata that once had a smooth surface at high level even though that surface may since have been largely destroyed by valley cutting. An example is the now hilly Appalachian Plateau of western Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and eastern Kentucky. See ESCARPMENT.

Among the extensive plateau lands of the world are the Colorado and Columbia Plateaus of the western United States, the Plateau of South America, the Patagonian Plateau of southern South America, the Central Siberian Plateau, and the Deccan Plateau of peninsular India. [E. H. HALL]

## Platinum

Chemical element number 78, platinum (Pt) is a white noble ductile metallic element.

**Natural occurrence** Native platinum found in placer comprises a mixture of the six platinum group metals: platinum, palladium, rhodium, ruthenium, iridium, and osmium.

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 a l l a t m m l n g t d l e r v e r d w h  
 m b l a l d d e b u e f t h r o m m  
 u e s A d g t e a y t m p r e a n t b e l l  
 n a n d t m a t d b t l c k g a e s t d e s A  
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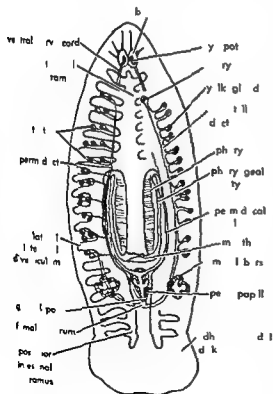


Fig 1 Bd II dd (T) dd ) t mm  
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**Reproduction** The platyhelminthes reproduce both asexually and sexually. In sexual reproduction, fertilization is internal and follows copulation. Many flatworms are hermaphrodites. Cross-fertilization is common. Except in coelodiploids, fertilization occurs within the egg. The eggs are often deposited in a suitable environment where the juveniles develop. Eggs of trematodes and cestodes may develop in the hosts and either eat or hatch; with a few swimming larvae. They then either develop directly or pass through intermediate hosts.

A e a l r p d c t o i f f e q u e n t o c u r e  
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p d e a e a l l y ( p o l y m b r y n y ) i t h i r l r  
l s t g a d o m e t a p e w o r m c h a E c h  
u d M l t e p F r m t o i p o g l u d  
n s x l p e a r l i n g f m a c t t y f a  
P l l e a t g n n c k g o n

[illegible]

other impurities it is necessary to separate them from each other. The refining of precious metals requires a great deal of flexibility on the part of the refiner. It is not unusual for a portion of the material to be recycled in the refinery because of the lack of suitable reactions for quantitative separations.

**Principal compounds** Platinum dioxide  $PtO_2$  is a dark brown insoluble compound. It is commonly known as Adams catalyst. It may be prepared by fusing chloroplatinic acid with sodium nitrate at 500°C. Solution of the melt in water separates the salts from the insoluble platinum dioxide. Platinum(II) chloride  $PtCl_2$  is an olive green water insoluble solid. It is made by heating platinum in chlorine at 500°C or by the thermal decomposition of chloroplatinic acid. Platinum(II) chloride dissolves in hydrochloric acid to form chloroplatinous acid  $H_2PtCl_4$  which cannot be isolated but which forms soluble salts such as potassium platinum(II) chloride  $K_2PtCl_6$ . Chloroplatinic acid  $H_2PtCl_6$  is the most important platinum compound. It is made by dissolving platinum in aqua regia, destroying the nitric acid by evaporation from a hydrochloric acid solution, and then evaporating the solution. The chloroplatinic acid is isolated as a hydrate  $H_2PtCl_6 \cdot 6H_2O$ . The red brown crystals are very soluble in water. Ammonium chloroplatinate  $(NH_4)_2PtCl_6$  is a lemon yellow crystalline relatively insoluble solid made by adding ammonium chloride to a solution of chloroplatinic acid. Compounds such as dichlorodiammine platinum  $Pt(NH_3)_2Cl_2$  exhibit cis trans isomerism because of their planar configuration.

**Analytical techniques** If platinum is to be determined in an ore type residue, it is collected in lead or silver while fusing the material with a suitable flux. Recent data indicates that iron, nickel, or copper may be superior collection media. The metallic residue is dissolved in aqua regia and the nitric acid is destroyed by evaporation from hydrochloric acid. The platinum is determined by reading the optical density of its stannous chloride complex. If it is necessary to remove impurities from the platinum, this may be accomplished by passing a solution of the anionic hexachloroplatinate complex through a cation exchanger. The impurities are generally cationic and are therefore removed by the resin. Hydrolysis or nitration may also be used. Potassium iodide or thiosemicarbazide may be used for the colorimetric determination of platinum. Thiophenol has been used for its gravimetric determination. See HYDROXYMATION. IRIIDIUM OSMIUM PALLADIUM RHODIUM RUTHENIUM [E A H A]

## Platyasterida

A Paleozoic order of Asterozoa comprising a single family and characterized by adambulacral and ambulacral ossicles in almost the same horizontal plane. The oral surface is therefore flat and the ambulacral groove poorly defined. See ASTEROIDEA. ECHINODERMATA FOSSILS [H B F]

## Platycopa

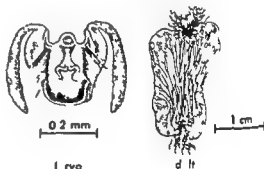
A suborder of the ostracods of the class Crustacea. This suborder contains the single family Cytherellidae. A heart and eyes are lacking. The exopodite and the endopodite of the second antennae are well developed, having broad flattened podomeres or appendage segments that distinguish members of this suborder from all other ostracods. Both pairs of antennae are capable of being extended anteriorly but are not used for locomotion. There are three pairs of postoral appendages, none of them leglike. In the female the last pair of postoral appendages are rudimentary.

Some species have been found only in the profundal sediments of the Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea; other species inhabit the Caribbean Sea, the Arabian Sea, and the Gulf of Mexico. The genus *Cytherella*, created by J. B. Quoy in 1852, includes present day forms but was established to accommodate fossil forms taken from the Tertiary deposits of France and Belgium. See OSTRACODA. [E F]

**Bibliography** W. L. Tressler, *Marine Ostracoda from the Gulf of Mexico*, U.S. Fish Wildlife Service Fishery Bull. 55:429-437, 1954.

## Platyctenea

An order of the ctenophores whose members are sedentary or parasitic. They often lack ribs in the adult stage. They are flattened due to the shortening



C. 1 plana bock

ing of the main axis and by the extension of the pharynx into a creeping sole. These organisms are beautifully colored. The primary tentacles are well developed and the canals branch profusely to form a network. Some are viviparous with the cypidium embryo developing in brood chamber formed by the expansion of the canal. *Ctenoplana*, *Coeloplana*, *Tjalfella*, *Lyrocteis*, and *Gastrodes* are representative genera. See CTENOPHORA. TELEOSTEALATA [T K]

## Platyhelminthes

A phylum of the invertebrate commonly called the flatworms. They are bilaterally symmetrical, non-segmented, dorsally flattened worms characterized by the lack of coelom and circulatory and respiratory systems and exo- or endoskeleton. They possess a protonephridial excretory system, a com-

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Plecoptera

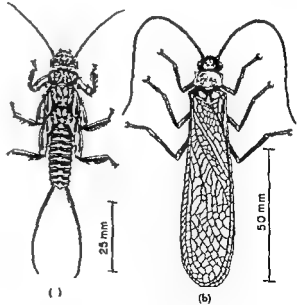
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c l u t h e s o f p e h a p s 1400 w h i l e t h o e f s m a l l  
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A d u l t f l e s h d t h e r w g l o e t o t h e i r  
b a k s w t e t r e s t o r w l k m T h e h d w i g s a r e  
p l t e d a d h d d e n T h e a m e P l e p t e m e a n i n g  
p l t e d w g m e s f r m t h h a b i t F o l d e d w i g s  
c o t t e a s t p n e v o l u t i n n e e r a h i e v e d b y  
m j f l e s o r e v e n b y t t e f l i



(a) Nymph (b) Adult of Plecoptera  
F P l h w g g l l t b a  
f i g (b) A d l t o f P r o c y f t h l g s  
t f l (A H M g F l d B k f P d d  
S l m P u t m 1930)





established. Recent flatfishes are classified in 6 families about 116 genera and nearly 500 species. They are essentially benthic inhabitants of continental shelf waters but a few ascend rivers or are found in the deep sea. Although most are tropical to temperate a few cross the Arctic Circle. Flatfishes are of great economic importance and they rank high in the quality of their flesh. See ACTINOPTERYGII. [RMR]



(a) ll



(b) l l th



(c) l pol th



(d) ph col th

Fig 1 (d) C et f c c d t p l i

lev f size r f r m h t do n t m lude t s e  
igneo bod (form d at th r f c f the  
e rth) The t r m f s t p n ed by H Cloos in  
1928 h d been w d ly d p t ed by geologist See  
C A t r i z a t i o

P l t are c c d a n t o d o d a n t d p d  
g o n w h e t h e y a p r a l l l n o p r l l e t  
t h e d m a t f i r e a f t h k t h e y t r d e  
T h e d i c t o n h t o b e m d e w i t h d e r e s p e c t t  
a c l e c o n c o d e a b d w a y i s g n r a l l y a c  
e m p e d b y d s c r d e i d e t i l M o e r a  
p l t b l y b e d a t r p a r t o f  
i s i t p t h d d s d a t o t h p t s

Concordant plutons I t r u e b o d e f t h  
t y p e g e l l y d d d t s l l c o l t h  
l p o l t h s d p h a o l t h b t t h e c l s f i a t n i  
n t e e s a l y c o m p l t O t h e f o r m h e b e  
d n c b e d b t t h n m e s h a n o t f o d w d e  
u a g t h f r m n m m a y b d d e d i n t h  
l i e m f t h e s (s c h p h c o l t h) m a y  
b e d e d d

S l l A l l i s a p l t r e l a t l y a r w  
d i t h b i t e t e t h t h e t w d m e n  
t r u d e d e x t a l l y p r a l l e t t h p l r f t r e s  
t h c l e d o c k S l l g r l l y w e m  
l e d l g t h b e d d p l n e f s e d m e n t y  
e k (F g l)

L c l t h T h f r m m m l y k t o b  
t r m h p e d b o d w t h e x r o o f d f i t f i  
t r u d e d i t b e d d e d r e c k s (F g l b) T h l y r s  
f r o c k t h e b l t l k t m p h e d  
p r d i f r m d m e W h e e d e d t h e u p  
r a n d e d g f i t h e t t k l y e m y f m  
l r d g c l l e d h g b k S e L A C C O L I T H  
L o p o l t h A l p l t h l a g a c h p d  
n d y h c t z e d p r e c l a l y b y e o o f  
i d f l o o t h l i s f i f r m g c u t  
t h t h p o c f e m p l m t t b q t l y  
i d d p d t l y (F g l c) T h g h l e b

d n t h n t h e p r e d i g g o u p n u m b e r o f l a g e  
a n d s t k g x a m p l e s a r e k n w n

Phacolith Phacoliths re structurally the re e  
f l p l t h b o t h r l a d f l o r a e o n e x p w a d  
(F g l d) H w e p h a c o l i t h a e g n r a l l y s m a l l  
o m p a e d t o l p o l t h B y d e f i t i o t h e s h a p w s  
e s t a b l h d c n r e t w i t h n d p s u m a b l y r l a t d  
t o t h e p o c e s f i t r u o n a d i l s b s e q u e n t l y  
d e f o r m e d n t t h s h p w o u l d n o t b e a p h a o l t h  
E x m p l s o f p h a c l t h m a y b t f e w t w r a n t  
c l u i o n n a g e n r a l l a i f i c t i o n

Discordant plutons Cu r e n t l y u s e d n a m e s i n  
l u d d k e s t o c k b t h l t h v l e a n n t s a n d  
g d k e A s w i t h c o c o d a t p l u t n s t h e l s t  
n t c o m p l e t t h e n a m s h e b e e u s e d n d  
m e c o l d b e a d d d u b t a c t e d

D k e A d k s m l t a l l o g n d n a  
e s a p p a c e t h e t h i c k m s m a l l c o m  
p a e d t t h e t t a t h o t h t w d m n  
b t t h e b o d y t n g r e ( t s o a) t h e f t u e  
o f t h e l s t g o c k (F g 2 a) D i k g e r l l y  
w e e m p l e d l n g f a c t u y s t e m o f f m  
t u e

S t k A t c k a p l t n w t h o g h l y e q d  
m e o n l o s t i o n f i l m e d i z e b t a m u c h  
g r e t r g n e a l l y i d t m a t h d d i m n s o n  
w h h d a r l y t e e p e t l (F g 2 b)

B t h l u t h T h f m m o s t m p l y d e c r b e d a  
l a r g e t k t h e p a t n b e g p l e d a t b o t  
40 m f c s m t o n e a b u t w d e l y e d  
d f i t (b y R A D l y 1933) l o t t e d f o r  
b o t h t k d b a t h l t h t h a n f l o o c o u l d b e  
d i r m d i f e d a d t h u g i p e f f e r r e d  
b y s m g l m t (F g 2 n d d) S e B A T H O L I T H  
f l c t h e e e t h e r o t f  
l n p e d b y b y u n d e r g r u d  
e p l t (s V o l c a o) T h y e g e n e l l y  
m p o t f e l i t r u s m d t u s e f  
t d r e c o m p l



(1) d l o e



(2) rock



(3) d (d) two i p t a o f t y p l b n l t h



Fig 2 (d) C s e l d e c d t p l



ton for plums and \$88 a ton for prunes. See FRUIT (BOTANY) FRUIT (TREE) [HBT]

**Plum and prune diseases** Brown rot a fungus disease caused by *Monilinia fructicola* is the limiting factor in production of plums under humid conditions. Infected fruit decays rapidly and is covered with gray masses of fungus spores (see FUNGI). Punctures made by the plum curculio a common fruit insect increase the risk of fungus infection. Control is difficult and must include measures for control of the plum curculio as well as the fungus. Commercial production of plums and prunes is confined almost entirely to the Pacific Coast state where the plum curculio does not occur and climatic conditions are less favorable for development of the fungus.

Japanese varieties of plums and their hybrids are so susceptible to attacks of the bacterial spot organism (*Xanthomonas pruni*) that their commercial production is likewise confined to the far western states where the organism does not occur. See BACTERIA.

Other fungus diseases are plum pockets (a form of the leaf curl disease) rust and scab. These diseases usually cause little damage.

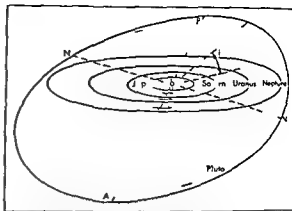
Diamond canker and prune dwarf are two important virus diseases that cause prune trees to become unproductive. Control involves removal of affected trees and use of virus free nursery stock. See FRUIT (TREE) DISEASES PLANT DISEASE CONTROL PLANT VIRUS [JC DU]

## Pluto

The most distant known planet in the solar system. It was discovered photographically on January 23, 1930, by C. W. Tombaugh at the Lowell Observatory where a systematic search for a trans-Neptunian planet had been initiated by P. Lowell. The presence of an unknown planet beyond Neptune and perturbing its motion had been predicted independently by P. Lowell and by W. H. Pickering on the basis of an analysis similar to though less rigorous than that which had led U. J. Leverrier and J. C. Adams to the prediction of Neptune. Pluto was found surprisingly near the predicted position. However, because of the estimated low mass of the planet some astronomers have questioned the validity of the original prediction.

Pluto's orbit has a semimajor axis (mean distance to Sun) of  $3.7 \times 10^9$  miles, an eccentricity of 0.25, the largest of the major planets, an inclination of orbital plane to ecliptic of  $17.3^\circ$ , also the largest of the major planets, a sidereal revolution period of 248.4 years, and a mean orbital velocity of 2.96 mi/sec. Pluto's large eccentricity causes its distance to the Sun to vary from  $4.59 \times 10^9$  miles at aphelion to  $2.6 \times 10^9$  miles at perihelion. The perihelion is  $4.9 \times 10^8$  miles less than Neptune's aphelion distance, but because of the large inclination of Pluto's orbit the two orbits do not intersect. See NEPTUNE PLANET.

Pluto is visible only through large telescopes. Its visual magnitude at mean opposition (that is, when close to Earth) is 14. The apparent di-



Orbit of Pluto. A perspective view to show the inclination and eccentricity of the orbit. A, aphelion; P, perihelion; NN, line of nodes.

ameter of its disk as estimated visually by G. P. Kuiper with the 200-in. telescope at Mount Palomar is about 0.2, and the corresponding linear diameter about half of Earth's diameter. With such a diameter and the mass about 0.9 (Earth = 1) derived from the perturbations of Neptune, the mean density would be of the order of 40, an improbably high value. On the other hand, if the albedo is about 0.2, a plausible value, the diameter would be about the same as Earth's and the density about 5, but the apparent diameter should be 0.45. This dilemma had not been resolved through 1959.

The theoretical average temperature is about 90 K. The spectrum of Pluto shows no trace of specific absorption attributable to an atmosphere, in particular no indication of methane, although the superficial gravity would probably be large enough to retain a tenuous atmosphere of heavy gases.

The light variations indicate that the surface of Pluto possesses dark markings and that the rotation period is about 16 hours.

Pluto has no known satellite. Its unique orbit, strongly inclined and highly eccentric, suggests an unusual origin, for example, that Pluto may once have been a distant satellite of Neptune, which escaped through the effect of external perturbations on the system.

The discrepancy between the observed apparent diameter and the estimated mass of Pluto has led to the suspicion that a trans-Neptunian planet remains to be found in the outskirts of the solar system, but it would be very distant and very faint, and the chances of finding it accidentally are extremely slight. No systematic search for such a planet had been made through 1959. [CNU]

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## Pluton

A general term in geology for a rock body formed by consolidation from a magma (molten material) without reaching the surface of the earth, or possibly by processes of replacement (granitization) giving an end product not readily distinguishable from that of the first name. The term included the term included.

u(III) to Pu(IV) is rapid with b muthate bro-  
 re to (III) d chromate iodate permang-  
 ate a decum(IV) ion Reduct on of Pu(IV) t  
 u(III) is rapid with iron(II) od de so s lfu  
 s id and nitrous acid Oxidation f Pu(IV)  
 P (VI) low with bromate d h r mat pe  
 nang n m and n t at to s The rates may be  
 hanged markedly by complex ion formation In  
 h p e n e f moderate on entrations of sulfur  
 ic acid f r exampl oxidatio past the IV state  
 very d f l t Som l st vely rap d oxidat on re  
 ct are l o known Ceric n arg nt c ion and  
 b muthate rapidly m id s Pu(IV) to Pu(VI)

The n of the d f f rent s id ion state ha s  
 h a r t t u e o l o Pu s blue v l t P  
 yellow b w n PuO redd sh a d PuO + pink  
 like th r r e a th they al h v e char c s t i c  
 absorpt e c t a with sha p b r p t i o n b a d s  
 The e h a been w d e l y d m th a a l y s i s o f  
 p l t u m f u t i o n t o d t m e t h e a m o u n t o f  
 b d a t a t e p r e e t

Preparation of the element M th d f r the  
 sol t n d p u r i f i c a t i o n f p l u t o n i u m m a k e u s f  
 the f i t h t h e e l e m e n t n x t i s a m l u p l i c i t y  
 f u d a t i o n t a t s m c h d f i e g m h m c a l p r o p e r t i e s  
 Laboratory p a t p c d u h v b e e n  
 d e m e d g a r r e r l v e t e t a c t d o  
 h a r e m e t h o d T h f i t p l a n t c l e o p  
 a n a m p l y f e c a i b m u t h p h o p h t i a n d  
 l i t h m f i d e l m t r e c e i p o a e s o l  
 t e x t a t s m p l y d l t h the a d a t g e  
 t h t n l y t h p l t m b u t a l o t h u r n u m f  
 the r a t f u e l m y b e d i e e r d n d e  
 c o n t a m i n a t e d f m f i n p r o d t S o m e f i h  
 m t m p o r t a t l e t a r e l t e d T a b l e 1 C o  
 s o l f i t h t r a t b e h a o o b t a i n d b y t h  
 o f d l n f t h l n t d d t o n f a l t m  
 r t t t h e q u e o u l a y e a d t h e c o l l f l u  
 t p h l T a b l e 1 a e l t e d t h e d l t a d l t  
 n g a g t e m m l y e m p l y e d t h d f i e n t  
 s l n t T h e b e h a f d f i e n t a l e t t e s  
 t h t h e s o l e t n b e l l t a t e d b y f c  
 t h r l a t e d t r b t n e m a e s d f i e d  
 t h n t r t n o f t h m t l i t h g a y h e  
 d d e d b y t h n t a t i o n t h e q u s p h  
 T b l e 1 T h a t l a f f i t h d t r b u t o  
 m n t w i l l c h n g w i t h e n d s b i t h a p  
 p v m a t r l a t e a l e s w i l l b e m a t n d  
 t o t h i d t r a l p o c e m p l o y n g h e ( t h  
 R e d p r o c s t h u m f e l s d l d  
 a t a d T h s l t o d e d d t h e U ( V I )  
 d P u ( V I ) x o c s a c r e d f m t h e p d  
 t f t r b b g t h h e l y t m  
 m p t e s t h e s l t a p a d v n a l m m  
 t t w i l l c t n n g d u c s m g r t h  
 p l t n m i r e m e d n t t h e a q e o l y  
 P u ( I I I ) d t h u n u m l f t h e l n t a  
 L ( V I ) T h q u e o u l y t h e r e o d i e d d  
 t h x t i p r o c e d B y c e s y l t h  
 p l t o n m i p f i e d t h d e d d g r e e  
 T h n d t p o c e m p l y i g t b t y l  
 f h w h a r ( T B P ) t h l e n t ( t h e P p o c  
 r ) p e t e s i n m h t h a m e n n A f t d -

T b l 1 S o l v e t o s e d l t h e s e p a r a t i o n o f p l u t o n i u m  
 a d a l u m f r o m f l i o n p o d c t s

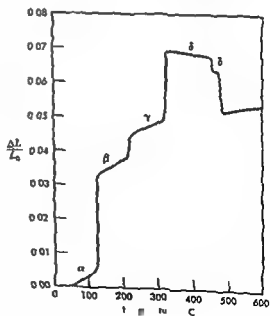
Sol t (m l u m )	D l t	Salting agent
Methyl alcohol (H)	No	Al(NO <sub>3</sub> )
T-butyl phosphite (TBP)	K roan	HNO <sub>3</sub> Al(NO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub>
Dibutyl ether (C <sub>4</sub> H <sub>10</sub> O)	N n	HNO <sub>3</sub>
Dibutyl ether (C <sub>4</sub> H <sub>10</sub> O)	N	HNO <sub>3</sub>
Triethylamine (TEA)	E	Al(NO <sub>3</sub> ) N

T a b l 2 D i s t r i b u t i o n c o e f f i c i e n t s o f p l u t o n i u m f r o m f l i o n p o d c t s f r o m f l i o n p o d c t s f r o m f l i o n p o d c t s

Sol	U(VI)	Pu(VI)	Pu(IV)	Pu(III)	Fm prod cts
H <sub>2</sub> O	15	76	$1.6 \times 10^{-2}$	$4.5 \times 10^{-2}$	$6 \times 10^{-2}$
TBP	80	96	15	$2 \times 10^{-2}$	$2 \times 10^{-2}$

ol u t o n o f t h e f e l e m e n t t h e p l u t o n i u m f i x e d  
 a P u ( I V ) n d t h u r a u m U ( V I ) T h n t a c  
 a c d o n c n t r i o n i s d j u t e d a d t h e P u ( V ) a n d  
 U ( V I ) e t c t e d t 30° T B P i n k r o n T h e  
 l e n t i w h d w i t h n t a c i d t o r e m o i m p u r i  
 t T h e p l u t o n i u m t h e n r e m o e d a P ( I I I ) b y  
 s c r b b n g t h e l e n t w i t h n t a c i d o t a i g a  
 e d c n g n t

P l u t o n i u m m e t l a b e p p e d b y t h e e d u c  
 t o n f P u F w t h c l i m m a l P l t n i m m t l  
 d e r v e s s p e l m e t n b c a u e o f i t s q  
 p r p r t s f t k n w n t e i t s s a l l t p  
 f o r m b l o w t h m f i n g p o t ( 6 3 9 C ) S o m e f



E p l o f h i g h p t y p l t m d d i o  
 f e l f h t u L = 0.5 (A f f E R J H )

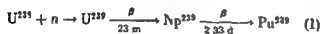
**Ring dikes** Ring dikes are arcuate dikes formed under special circumstances during the emplacement of stocks or batholiths they are known from a few widely separated places in the world

**Bibliography** M P Billings *Structural Geology* 2d ed 1954 R A Daly *Igneous Rocks and the Depths of the Earth* 2d ed 1933 C B Hunt P Averitt and R L Miller *Geology and Geography of the Henry Mountains Region Utah* USGS Profess Paper 228 1953

## Plutonium

Chemical element number 94 plutonium Pu is a silvery white reactive metal of the transuranium series of elements The first isotope to be identified was  $\text{Pu}^{239}$  produced in cyclotron experiments by

G T Seaborg E M McMillan A C Wahl and J Kennedy The principal isotope of chemical interest is Pu It is formed in nuclear reactors by the process



$\text{Pu}^{239}$  decays by  $\alpha$  emission with a half life of 24 360 years Its fissionability makes it of importance in nuclear weapons and in nuclear reactors Minute quantities of Pu are formed in pitchblende and monazite ores by reaction (1) In pitchblende the uranium to plutonium ratio is approximately 10 : 1

**Uses** Plutonium is used as a nuclear fuel to produce radioactive isotopes for research and as the fissionable in nuclear weapons See NUCLEAR FUELS REACTOR NUCLEAR REACTOR NUCLEAR (CLASSIFICATION)

**Properties** Like its neighboring elements uranium and neptunium plutonium exhibits a variety of valence states in solution and in the solid state In solution the known oxidation states are III IV V and VI Plutonium metal is highly electropositive The ions of the IV V and VI states are moderately strong oxidizing agents The ions of the III IV and VI states can coexist in 1 M perchloric acid solution

Because the oxidation potentials are so close in dilute pure solutions of intermediate oxidation state undergo disproportionation (self oxidation

and reduction reactions) The most important equilibrium is that involving the disproportionation of  $\text{Pu(IV)}$  which can be written



for which the equilibrium constant is

$$K_1 = \frac{[\text{PuO}_2^{2+}][\text{Pu}^{3+}]^2[\text{H}^+]^4}{[\text{Pu}^{4+}]^3} \quad (3)$$

$K_1$  is calculated from the potentials to be 0.0089 for 1 M acid at 25 C In 1 M acid the solution resulting from the disproportionation of pure plutonium(IV) would be 72%  $\text{Pu(IV)}$  18.6%  $\text{Pu(III)}$  and 9.3%  $\text{Pu(VI)}$  Although  $\text{Pu(V)}$  is unstable in molar perchloric acid it becomes increasingly stable as the acidity decreases In 0.1 M acid appreciable concentration of all four valence states may coexist in solution The additional equilibrium that must be considered may be written as



The equilibrium constant  $K_2$

$$K_2 = \frac{[\text{PuO}_2^{2+}][\text{Pu}^{2+}]}{[\text{PuO}][\text{Pu}^{4+}]} \quad (5)$$

is 13 in 1 M perchlorate solution at 25 C The rate of attainment of the equilibrium of reaction (4) is slow and that of reaction (5) very fast A constant equilibrium state is not maintained over long periods of time because of the slow reduction in average oxidation number in solution caused by the reaction of the plutonium ions with the  $\alpha$ -radiation induced decomposition products of the water

In solutions of acids such as nitric and hydrochloric whose anions form weak complexes with plutonium ions the relative stabilities of the different states are little changed Qualitatively it is known that univalent anions with the exception of fluoride form relatively weak complexes with the ions of all oxidation states Higher valent anions form relatively strong complexes In general the relative stabilities of complexes with a given anion decreases in the order



Complex formation will generally stabilize the IV state Hydrolysis reactions can also markedly affect the relative stabilities of the different states As in the case of complex formation the IV state is stabilized by hydrolysis Polymerization processes play an important role in the hydrolysis reactions Plutonium(IV) has been reported to form soluble polymers with molecular weights as high as 10

A large amount of information is available on the behavior of plutonium ions when treated with common oxidizing and reducing agents It is generally found that reactions which involve only changes from the III to IV or V to VI state tend to be rapid Reaction which involve the formation or destruction of the oxygenated ions of the V or VI states tend to be slow As examples oxidation of



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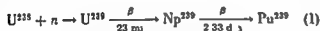
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$K_1$  is calculated from the potential to be 0.0089 for 1 M acid at 25 C In 1 M acid the solution resulting from the disproportionation of pure plutonium(IV) would be 72%  $\text{Pu(IV)}$  18.6%  $\text{Pu(III)}$  and 9.3%  $\text{Pu(VI)}$  Although  $\text{Pu(V)}$  is unstable in molar perchloric acid it becomes increasingly stable as the acidity decreases In 0.1 M acid appreciable concentration of all four valence states may coexist in solution The additional equilibrium that must be considered may be written as



The equilibrium constant  $K_2$

$$K_2 = \frac{[\text{PuO}_2^{2+}][\text{Pu}^{3+}]}{[\text{PuO}_2^+][\text{Pu}^{2+}]} \quad (5)$$

is 13 in 1 M perchlorate solution at 25 C The rate of attainment of the equilibrium of reaction (5) is slow and that of reaction (4) very fast A constant equilibrium state is not maintained over long periods of time because of the low reduction in average oxidation number in solution caused by the reaction of the plutonium ions with the  $\alpha$  radiation induced decomposition products of the water

In solutions of acids such as nitric and hydrochloric where anions form weak complexes with plutonium ions the relative stabilities of the different states are little changed Qualitatively it is known that univalent anion with the exception of fluoride form relatively weak complexes with the ions of all oxidation state Higher valent anions form relatively strong complexes In general the relative stabilities of complexes with a given anion decrease in the order



Complex formation will generally stabilize the IV state Hydrolysis reactions can also markedly affect the relative stabilities of the different states A in the case of complex formation the IV state is stabilized by hydrolysis Polymerization processes play an important role in the hydrolysis reaction Plutonium(IV) has been reported to form soluble polymers with molecular weights as high as 10

A large amount of information is available on the behavior of plutonium ions when treated with common oxidizing and reducing agent It is generally found that reaction which involve only changes from the III to IV or V to VI state tend to be rapid Reaction which involve the formation or destruction of the oxygenated states of the V or VI states tend to be slow A



Table 3 Properties of plutonium metal

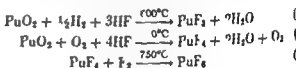
Phase	Symmetry	Density g/cm <sup>3</sup>	Temperature of phase transition °C	Linear expansion coefficient $\alpha \times 10^6$	Resistivity $\times 10^6$ (ohm-cm)	Temperature coefficient of resistivity
$\alpha$	Monoclinic	19.816	122	50.8	145	-1
$\beta$		1.65	203	38.0	110.5	-6
$\gamma$	Orthorhombic	1.19 17.14	319	34.7	110	-5
$\delta$	Face-centered cubic	15.9	453	-10.0	103	+
$\delta$	Body-centered tetragonal	16.0	471	-1.0	105	+45
	Body-centered cubic	16.48	639.5	1.7	114	-
Liquid		16.5		50		

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{L} \frac{L}{T} \quad \rho = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\rho}{T} \times 10$$

its physical properties are given in Table 3. Particularly interesting and puzzling are the contractions which the  $\delta$  and  $\delta'$  phases undergo with increasing temperature (see graph); noteworthy is the fact that for no phase do both the coefficient of thermal expansion and the temperature coefficient of resistivity have the conventional algebraic sign. If the phase expands on heating, the resistance decreases. A number of alloys of plutonium are known. Among these are alloys with beryllium, lead, uranium, chromium, manganese, iron, nickel, and sodium.

**Principal compounds.** A large number of compounds of plutonium have been prepared. Reaction of hydrogen with plutonium metal yields at least two well-defined hydrides, PuH and PuH<sub>2</sub>. The

common oxide is PuO<sub>2</sub>. It is formed by igniting the hydroxides, oxalate, peroxide, and nitrates; any oxidation takes place in air at 810–1200°C. It crystallizes in a face-centered cubic structure (density 11.44 g/cm<sup>3</sup>). It has been extensively used for gravimetric analyses of plutonium. A lower oxide, Pu<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, is known. One of the most important classes of compounds is made up of the halides. Plutonium of the known halides and oxyhalides are given in Table 4. The hexafluoride is a low melting low boiling compound of high volatility resembling NpF<sub>6</sub> and PuF<sub>6</sub>. It is a strong fluorinating agent. Conditions for the preparation of the fluorides are illustrated by the equations:



The other halides are prepared by a variety of methods. Treatment of PuO<sub>2</sub> with powerful halogenating agents such as CCl<sub>4</sub>, PCl<sub>5</sub>, and SOCl<sub>2</sub> yields PuCl<sub>3</sub>, PuBr<sub>3</sub>, and PuI<sub>3</sub> are conveniently made by the action of the anhydrous gases HCl, HBr, and HI on plutonium metal.

A number of other compounds are known. Among these are the carbide, silicide, sulfide, and nitride. The carbide is of interest because of its refractory nature. Among these are PuC, Pu<sub>2</sub>C, PuN,  $\alpha$ -PuSi,  $\beta$ -PuSi<sub>2</sub>, PuSi, PuS, Pu<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>.

Table 4 Plutonium halides and oxyhalides

Compound	Color	Melting point °C	Density	Crystallinity
PuF <sub>3</sub>	Pu-pl	14	9.3	Hexagonal
PuF <sub>4</sub>	Pu-leb	103	7.0	Monoclinic
PuF <sub>6</sub>	Reddish brown	50.5		Orthorhombic
PuCl <sub>3</sub>	Green	60	5.0	Hexagonal
PuBr <sub>3</sub>	Green	681	6.69	Orthorhombic
PuI <sub>3</sub>	Green		6.9	Orthorhombic
PuOF <sub>2</sub>	White	1635	9.6	Tetragonal
PuOCl	White-green		8.81	Tetragonal
PuOB	Green		9.0	Tetragonal
PuOI	Green		8.46	Tetragonal

Table 5 Some insoluble inorganic compounds of plutonium precipitated from aqueous solution

Oxidation state			
III	IV	V	VI
Pu(III) PuPO <sub>2</sub> · 2H <sub>2</sub> O Pu(C <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> · 9H <sub>2</sub> O	NH <sub>4</sub> FuF Pu(OH) <sub>2</sub> · 2H <sub>2</sub> O Pu(III) PuO <sub>2</sub> · 2H <sub>2</sub> O Pu(HPO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> · 2H <sub>2</sub> O	K <sub>2</sub> PuO <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub>	Na <sub>2</sub> PuO <sub>2</sub> (C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> )

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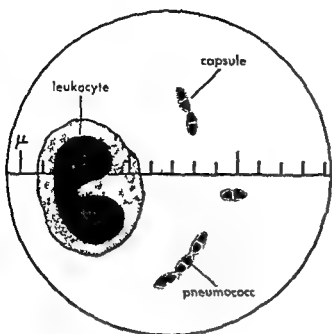
Pathogenicity Pneumococci occur in the upper respiratory tract of apparently healthy guinea pig rabbits horses and monkeys and human Epizootics of pneumococcal pneumonia and pleurisy occur in domestic animals but are not the order of human infection (see PNEUMONIA). Epidemics of pneumococcal pneumonia in humans may be caused by closed institutions and may be prevented by immunization with killed vaccine with specific carbohydrate of the same pneumococcal type. In man pneumococci may be found in the upper respiratory tract of early adult individuals in the winter or other seasons. Pneumococci are the principal cause of lobar pneumonia and may also produce meningitis pericarditis and pleurisy as well as infection of the pleura middle ear and accessory sinuses. Some of the most common complications are caused by extension of the infection to the middle ear Thrombocytopenic purpura and disseminated intravascular coagulation are complications of pneumococcal infection. The mortality rate in untreated infections is high but has been markedly reduced by the use of antibiotics. S. BACTERIOLOGY MANUAL. [M.F.]

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### Pneumocystosis

A d e f m n a u e d b y a s p o z o n P u m o  
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cur g n f n t o e r r to n g h i d n Th





*Pneumococcus* n sp tum (Fom A B Sab n J Am Med Assc 100(20) 1585 1933)

at proximal sides and pointed at distal ends. A capsule envelops each pair or chain of cocci; this capsule may have a uniform periphery or may have indentations between the twin cells or between pairs. The organism is nonmotile and stains gram positive unless the organisms are degenerating or dead. See BACTERIAL MOTILITY. GRAM'S STAIN.

**Cultural characteristics.** *Pneumococci* are fastidious in their nutritional requirements which include many amino acids, vitamins, minerals and carbon sources. The organism grows best in enriched media containing serum or blood and in the presence of oxygen, being aerobic. It also may grow anaerobically in which case it probably derives oxygen through a flavin-containing enzyme system. It produces hydrogen peroxide that may hinder or prevent growth; this may be overcome by adding substances having oxidation-reduction action. It grows uniformly in liquid media. Lactic acid and in some strains formic and acetic acids accumulate in the culture medium, increasing the acidity and limiting growth; this may be overcome by adding glucose to the medium and by neutralizing the acid with sodium hydroxide. Growth is optimum at 37°C and the organisms die rapidly at 55°C.

On blood agar the organism produces small, water-clear, flattened and (later) umbiliform colonies that are surrounded by a greenish zone of hemolysis indicating methemoglobin formation. The organism contains intracellular proteolytic lipolytic and carbohydrate-fermenting enzymes; these readily produce autolysis, that is, dissolution of the organism. Viability of the pneumococcus can be preserved in partly desiccated animal tissue like mouse heart or spleen or by lyophilization, which is rapid freezing with vacuum drying. See LYOPHILIZATION.

**Identification.** *Pneumococcus* closely resembles

**Solubility in bile.** The addition of a solution of either bile salts or sodium deoxycholate to a young broth culture or to suspensions of organisms, at a neutral pH, will cause lysis of the pneumococcus and a turbid pneumococcal suspension will clear rapidly. This action is complete in 5–10 min and probably represents accelerated autolysis. It occurs without regard to specific type or colonial form. *S. viridians* will not lyse under this test.

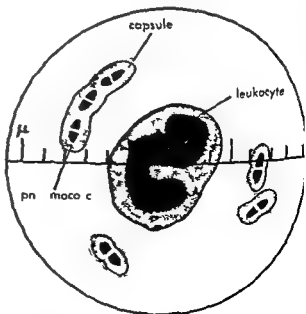
**Quellung reaction.** Swelling of the pneumococcus capsule is induced by mixing the type-specific antiserum (serum containing antibodies) prepared from rabbits with a suspension of the organisms. This differentiates the type as well as the species. See QUELLUNG REACTION.

**Pneumococcal agents.** *Pneumococci* are vulnerable to the usual germicides and antiseptics; growth is inhibited by many quinine derivatives, especially optochin (ethyl hydrocupreine) and also by most sulfonamide drugs (see ANTISEPTIC DRUGS). They are susceptible in vitro and in vivo to many antibiotics; the most effective is penicillin. Although resistance to these antibacterial agents has been induced by repeated subculture in subinhibitory concentrations, resistance has not been shown to develop during treatment of pneumococcal infections.

**Antigens.** *Pneumococci* contain three major antigens. See ANTIGEN.

**Somatic protein antigen.** This antigen is common to all types of pneumococci and to certain streptococci. The individual is afforded little if any protection by antibodies to this fraction upon exposure to pneumococci or during the course of such an infection.

**Somatic C carbohydrate.** The somatic C carbohydrate is common to all types of pneumococci, but not to all streptococci. Skin reactions are produced when this antigen is injected intradermally into man.



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by growth either in solutions of the type specific  
 organisms or in solutions of deoxyribonucleic  
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 transformation an allele made in mice in cul-  
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 bination of the furm phenologic variants have  
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 us to recognize at once if dependently hital le-  
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 BACTERIAL GENETICS

**Pathogenicity** Pneumococci occur in the upper  
 respiratory tract of apparently healthy guinea pig  
 rabbits horses calves dogs monkeys and human  
 Epizootic of pneumococcal pneumonia and of  
 other local or systemic pneumococcal infection  
 occur in monkeys guinea pigs and rat but re not  
 the source of human infections (see PNEUMONIA)  
 Epidemics of pneumococcal pneumonia all occur  
 in human mostly in closed institutions Some of  
 the epidemics have been prevented or their spread  
 halted by immunization with killed vaccine with  
 specific carbohydrate of the same pneumococcal  
 type In man pneumococci may be found in the up-  
 per respiratory tract frequently all individuals are  
 sensitive or their Pneumococci are the pri-  
 cause of lobar pneumonia but may also produce  
 meningitis peritonitis and pericarditis as well as  
 infection of the pleura middle ear and accessory  
 nasal sinuses Some of these infections are accom-  
 panied by sinusitis of the blood stream or septi-  
 cemia The mortality is retarded if tonsils high  
 but this has been markedly reduced by the use of  
 antibiotics S BACTERIOLOGY MEDICAL [M.F.]

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 tion in pneumococci J Exp Med 18 21 34 35-  
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## Pneumocystosis

Adenoma caused by sporozoan *Pneumocystis carinii*. The microorganism is usually re-  
 ported as a 1912 discovery in a range of  
 rodents widespread in human pathology in  
 1953. Briefly though the virgates of *O. J. ro-*  
 ecndellb t r s O l y o n p e i r e c o g  
 d n a m l d m m a n d r d n g l y t e e i  
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 W e p o t d t s s f r h a c b e n f a t l m  
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lesions are conspicuous and distinctive and the entity plasma cell interstitial pneumonia has been attributed to *Pneumocystis*. Satisfactory therapy and control remain to be achieved. See PARASITOLOGY MEDICAL [D W]

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## Pneumonia

An acute or chronic inflammation of the lung tissues occurring in humans and in many animals. Pneumonia in humans may be caused by numerous microbial immunological physical or chemical agents. It may also be associated with many systemic disease. Any or all parts of the lung may be involved with the inflammatory exudate filling the alveolar air spaces of one or more lobes as in lobar pneumonia or the smaller segments in lobular pneumonia. It may be disposed in and around the bronchi in bronchopneumonia or may be limited predominantly to the interalveolar areas as in interstitial pneumonia. Pneumonia may be a primary disease or a secondary event in other diseases.

**Known causes and diseases.** Pneumonia may be caused by bacteria fungi various parasites and rickettsiae and also by miscellaneous conditions like allergy exposure to chemicals and foreign bodies.

**Bacteria.** The following organisms cause pneumonia.

Pneumococci of various types cause pneumococcal pneumonia.

Staphylococci that are coagulase positive cause staphylococcal pneumonia.

Hemolytic group A streptococci cause streptococcal pneumonia.

*Klebsiella pneumoniae* types A B and C cause Friedlander's pneumonia.

*Bordetella pertussis* causes whooping cough often with pneumonia as a secondary infection or complication.

*Haemophilus influenzae* causes influenzal pneumonia. Type b strains of *H. influenzae* are usually found in infants; the strains found in adults cannot be typed.

*Pasteurella pestis* causes bubonic or pneumonic plague.

*Brucella* species cause brucellosis. In acute brucellosis pneumonia may occur as a complication.

Coli aerogenic organisms may cause pneumonia incidental to a systemic infection.

*Salmonella* species cause systemic infections including typhoid fever. Pneumonia may occur as a complication.

Meningococci cause meningococcal meningitis with pneumonia as a secondary infection or complication.

*Bacillus anthracis* causes anthrax. One form pulmonary anthrax has a high fatality rate if not diagnosed early.

*Mycobacterium tuberculosis* on occasion may cause acute tuberculous pneumonia.

Mixed infections that is infections with more than one species of bacteria or with bacteria and viruses may cause pneumonia. See BACTERIOLOGY MEDICAL.

**Fungous infections.** Infections due to fungi may involve the lung and cause pneumonia in monilia, actinomycosis blastomycosis cryptococcosis histoplasmosis coccidioidomycosis nocardiosis, and others (see MYCOLOGY MEDICAL).

**Parasitic diseases.** Infections with protozoa or helminths may have pulmonary manifestations, often acute in such diseases as trichinosis malaria amebiasis Leishmaniasis (kala azar) toxoplasmosis chistosomiasis paragonimiasis clonorchiasis and filariasis (see PARASITOLOGY MEDICAL).

**Viruses.** The known viruses which may cause pneumonia are influenza A (including A1 type) A and B psittacosis (ornithosis) lymphocytic choriomeningitis variola (smallpox) varicella (chicken pox) measles adenovirus type 4 (and possibly other types) lymphogranuloma venereum and feline pneumonia. Of probable but unproved viral origin are the pulmonary involvements in cytoplasmic inclusion disease of infant infectious mononucleosis and the so-called primary atypical pneumonia (PAP) or viral pneumonia (see ANIMAL VIRUS).

**Rickettsial infections.** These include Q fever epidemic typhus (including the recrudescence form or Brill's disease) Rocky Mountain spotted fever *fièvre boutonneuse* South African tick fever and probably others. See RICKETTSIOSES.

**Miscellaneous.** The following pneumonia have less common or ill defined etiologic agents. Loeffler's eosinophilia (allergic pneumonia) rheumatic pneumonia lipid pneumonia (from lipids and oils as oily nose drop) inhalation or aspiration pneumonia (from chemicals gases blood and other foreign bodies) pulmonary hemorrhage (associated with hemolysis of red blood cells usually from a systemic disorder).

**Complications.** The bacterial pneumonias may sometimes cause destruction of parts of the lung by abscess formation or may involve the pleura in an empyema or sterile effusions. Inflammation and dilation of bronchi (bronchiectasis) and spread of infection to remote organs are not unusual. Fortunately however most common pneumonias heal by resolution leaving lung structure and function little changed.

Viral pneumonias may have superimposed bacterial infection.

**Therapy and prognosis.** Treatment is specific for the causative agent, chiefly reliance on antimicrobial agents. See ANTIBIOTIC CHEMOTHERAPY.

The course and outcome depend on the cause and also on the availability and proper use of specific therapy.

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## Pneumonitis

An typical p umon s a ed by one f se eral  
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pl ed in ubd n nd e l l d pne mon tr  
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## Podicipitiformes

Th d of b d s c m ng th i gle f mil  
Pod p t d e th g eb Long th ight to hare a  
m m n c t with th l n (G i form)  
th g b w b l e n t h e e l e d l  
l ke adapt i d p e n d e n t l y d i n d  
s u m m g Th legs i m l a l y e t i b a k n  
l l i b d y i t h o m p e e d b l d l k e t a i Th  
l o e f i g e b a n t b b d h w r b t a r m  
d d l l y b d d s d l b e d Th p m e i  
d a d l k a d the t l i d m n t a v Many  
p e c e s h e l a b i t n d f i t c t c l a  
f m l q a t r t h p d p l v Alth gh highl y  
d p t d f q a t c l i m t g b s e t n g  
f i r a d the n p a e m i a t v Th i  
f l h i l p e e C e t p l m a m c p t m  
f u n d i L a k T u e c the A d e s The m l a  
h i m l y m o p o l t n S A z [K F R]

## Podocopa

A b d r f t h o d O r d a m w h h t h  
m e m b h a h e l l t h t w i t h u t a p r m e t  
t o a p r u e The h l l s i d f i n t p e  
r y s h p a d u l p t r B t h p r f  
t m e u e d f r l o m o t the w m m g  
c r a l n g Th m n d b l e s w e l l d e l p e d d i  
l l y p d d w t h p l p f o u p d m r e  
Th p l p l o h i h f t a t l l The  
h a r t b t A m p l e y e o l l f r e  
q u e n l p t E c h m a l l o d d w t h  
l g r p t o y p l t The e e f o u r f  
p l l p l n d g f i t c d d t h d t h  
l l g a d t h f i a

Extant ostracods F r f m l f t h P d n  
e c g n e d b e d t h s t t e f t h t h  
a l p d the p e e r a l n e e d d  
g e e f d l p m n t f t h d l m s Th  
f a m l y t h C y p d a D a w u l d C y t h  
d e d B i d a  
C r d Th f m l y l u d b o t h m n d  
f r h w t g e r s w h h a l l t h t h c l g  
r d e n t Th f i r t t h t e p p d g m o d  
f e d f m t t n d t h d p d t o f t h l e g

n the mal f r m a p e l e n s t e p l p The t h d l e g  
t b n d t r a l l y and i s u e d i n k e e p i n g the l o d y  
and i n n e r r f a e o f the s t e l l f r e e f f r e i g n m a t  
t e r The a l d o m n a l p p e n d a g e and f i l r a m  
e a c h h e t w c l a w s n d t w m a r l In  
the C y p r i d o p t a e the r m i a r e r e d u c e d t f l a g e l l a  
l k e t a e The C y p r i d a e h o w d e f i n i t e c a l c y  
l s S a m e p e t e s o c c u r l v i n a t u m and t h s  
n the s p r i n g o r m m e r O r g a n i m a t l t i n h a l i t  
p e r m a n e n t l o d e s o f w a t e r m a y l e t w o r t h r e e  
g e n e r a t i o n a y p e c i e l i v i n g t e m p r a r y  
p d a d d t h e g e n e r l y h a l y a i g l e g  
e r a t n a y e a r The l i f e p a n v r i e s w i t h the p e  
c a n d w i t c l m a t o n d t i t a r d t h t  
l i v e i n p e r m e n t l i d e o f w a t e r g e n e r l y h e  
l n g e l f p a s t h t h m i n h a l t i n g t e m p e y  
p d s a d d t c h e

The f m l y C y p r i d a i s d i d e d i t e g h t u l  
f a m l i e s w h h e w d e l y d i s t r i b u t e d M t g e r a  
n d n u m o u s p e c i e s a r e H o l a r e c r e m p o l i  
t a n

D a i n t d a Th s f a m l y h a t h e f i r t i f r a i c  
a y p e d a g m o d i f i e d f m s t i c a t i n w h i l e the e  
n d n d t h i r d t l a l e g r e m l r n d a d a p t e d  
f o r c r a w l n g The a n t e n e a e w i t h t w m m i n g  
t e T l f c a e a c c m p l e t l y l k n g t l d y  
t m n a t g n a s i n g l c n e l a p e d p r o j e c t n Th  
f m a l e s p a r u t h a t s b e r l i n g y o n g A  
g l e g e n u s D a r u t l i k n w w i t h t w p e  
p r e t l y e g n e d O n l y D a i u l a t e t s o s  
B d y a d n r m a n w h l h b i t the l i t t m f  
l a g e f i w a t e r l k e s h b e n o l r e d n N r t l  
A m e r c

C y t h i d a Th s a r e p n e i p l l y m a r i n f r m a  
The a n t e n s f m m l e r s f i t h i f m l y a r e w t h  
u t n a t o v t a e and the t h e e p s f t h c e  
l g a r e s m l a r t e m a d p t e d f a w l n g The  
f u a l a m r r e d e d a d e d c t s e j a u l a  
t i s s b n t S m e p e s a e s p a r u S p e  
e l t h g e s E t o y t h l i a m m n a l  
n the g l l s f r p e m f r a y f i h  
B a d u t t h d i d a Th r n t r e l y m  
e a n d p e s h l l o f f i m c t e n e v Th  
a l e s e n s p u l y q a l w i t h the l e f t b e  
g t h e l g The a n t e n a r e w l l d e v l p d  
b u t r e n t a d a p t e d f r w m m g The t h r t h o



(a) Oligyth



(b) Alityth



(c) DShb

J a c y t h f l l U d S h b )  
(b) A l i t y t h o f t (B q i) E o c e c y t h  
d w i t h l b d t h g  
c y t h g t l R y m c ( ) l g m o  
t d w i t h m p h d t h g

lesions are conspicuous and distinctive and the entity plasma cell interstitial pneumonia has been attributed to *Pneumocystis*. Satisfactory therapy and control remain to be achieved. See PARASITOLOGY MEDICAL [b w]

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## Pneumonia

An acute or chronic inflammation of the lung tissues occurring in humans and in many animals. Pneumonia in humans may be caused by numerous microbial immunological physical or chemical agents. It may also be associated with many systemic diseases. Any or all parts of the lung may be involved with the inflammatory exudate filling the alveolar air spaces of one or more lobes as in lobar pneumonia or the smaller segments in lobular pneumonia. It may be disposed in and around the bronchi in bronchopneumonia or may be limited predominantly to the interalveolar areas as in interstitial pneumonia. Pneumonia may be a primary disease or a secondary event in other diseases.

**Known causes and diseases** Pneumonia may be caused by bacteria fungi various parasite and rickettsiae and also by miscellaneous conditions like allergy exposure to chemicals and foreign bodies.

**Bacteria** The following organisms cause pneumonia.

*Pneumococci* of various types cause pneumococcal pneumonia.

*Staphylococci* that are coagulase positive cause staphylococcal pneumonia.

Hemolytic group A streptococci cause streptococcal pneumonia.

*Klebsiella pneumoniae* types A B and C cause Friedlander's pneumonia.

*Bordetella pertussis* causes whooping cough often with pneumonia as a secondary infection or complication.

*Haemophilus influenzae* causes influenzal pneumonia. Type b strains of *H. influenzae* are usually found in infants; the strains found in adults cannot be typed.

*Pasteurella pestis* causes bubonic or pneumonic plague.

*Brucella* species cause brucellosis. In acute brucellosis pneumonia may occur as a complication.

Coli aerogenes organisms may cause pneumonia incidental to a systemic infection.

*Salmonella* species cause systemic infections including typhoid fever. Pneumonia may occur as a complication.

Meningococci cause meningococcal meningitis with pneumonia as a secondary infection or complication.

*Bacillus anthracis* causes anthrax. One form pulmonary anthrax has a high fatality rate if not diagnosed early.

*Mycobacterium tuberculosis* on occasion may cause acute tuberculous pneumonia.

Mixed infections that is infections with more than one species of bacteria or with bacteria and viruses may cause pneumonia. See BACTERIOLOGY MEDICAL.

**Fungous infections** Infections due to fungi may involve the lung and cause pneumonia in monilia, actinomycosis blastomycosis cryptococcal histoplasmosis coccidioidomycosis nocardiosis and others (see MYCOLOGY MEDICAL).

**Parasitic diseases** Infection with protozoa or helminthes may have pulmonary manifestations, often acute in such diseases as trichinosis malaria, amebiasis Leishmaniasis (kala-azar) toxoplasmosis schistosomiasis paragonimiasis clonorchiasis and filariasis (see PARASITOLOGY MEDICAL).

**Virus** The known viruses which may cause pneumonia are influenza A (including A1 and type A and B psittacosis (ornithosis) lymphocytic choriomeningitis variola (smallpox) varicella (chicken pox) measles adenovirus type 4 (and possibly other types) lymphogranuloma venereum and feline pneumonia. Of probable but unproved viral origin are the pulmonary involvements in cytoplasmic inclusion disease of infant infectious mononucleosis and the so-called primary atypical pneumonia (PAP) or viral pneumonia (see ANIMAL VIRUS).

**Rickettsial infections** These include Q fever epidemic typhus (including the recrudescent form or Brill's disease) Rocky Mountain spotted fever fever boutonneuse South African tick fever and probably others. See RICKETTSIOSIS.

**Miscellaneous** The following pneumonias have less common or ill-defined etiologic agent: Loeffler's eosinophilia (allergic pneumonia) rheumatic pneumonia lipid pneumonia (from lipids and oils as oily nose drops) inhalation or aspiration pneumonia (from chemicals as blood and other foreign bodies) pulmonary hemosiderosis (associated with hemolysis of red blood cells usually of a systemic disorder).

**Complications** The bacterial pneumonias may sometimes cause destruction of parts of the lung by abscess formation or may involve the pleura in an empyema or sterile effusions. Inflammation and dilation of bronchi (bronchiectasis) and spread of infection to remote organs is not unusual. Fortunately however most common pneumonia heal by resolution leaving lung structure and function little changed.

Viral pneumonias may have superimposed bacterial infection.

**Therapy and prognosis** Treatment is specific for the causative agent; chief reliance is on antimicrobial agents. See ANTIBIOTIC CHEMOTHERAPY.

The course and outcome depend on the cause and also on the availability and proper use of specific therapy. [r f]

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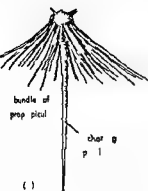


Fig 2 D p s Poe'le d ( ) Cl d h u  
l g p 5500 m i s (b) E p p h l l g  
15 m (f m Hym 1940) (Afr R d l y d  
D dy 1887)

f d i l l e a s d r a n g e f m i d l w t e r s t  
d e t h o f t h e 1500 m e t e r s

F i l p o g e s w i t h s k e l e t o n s o m p r a b l e t  
t h o s e o f R e n t p o s i l c l e d a r e c i t t e r e d  
t h a t h e f i l r c o d f r m C a m b r n t i m e U n  
d b i d p e l o s e l r d s p c u l e s a e k o w n f m  
T r a y d p t S e e D E M O S P O N G I A E [ w o r d s ]

## Poeobiodea

A p h l m p o e d b y W F h n 1946 ( r  
n l e p e P b u s m H e a t h A r t i c a l  
i d y f i t h p a r t l a r p c r e a l e d t t b n  
b a t p l y h t [ c a c ]  
B l g p h y H H a t h A e e t g l k b  
t e e n t h A n n e l d a n d t h E h r o d ( G p h y e  
m t ) J W p h o l 49 223-249 1930 G E  
P k f d H t o l g l a d h t c h m c a l o b e r v a  
t n a n l t l d P o e o b i u s m  
W t h J W p h o l 80 287 319 194

## Pogonophora

A g p l n l g a d e d t h a g l e c l f  
t h p h y l m B h a t T h e y h a a t e i z d b y  
t h f i l l g f t r T h l o n g t e b d c o t  
t h e e g m e n t T h e t w o n t r s e g m e t  
f e e d f m a n a n t e i r e g T h i s p t d  
b a d p h g r f r m t h i g t u k g  
k d e d s t h d e g m t T h t k s b d d d  
n t a p l e t n o t i n g f a h r  
m e t m r p o t n f l o e d b y l m o m t a  
m r p r i m d p t a l e t u n w h h h  
f e e n d d i b e n d l m t m E h  
r e g m n h a r a t f m b d y t y a d  
t h f i t g n t h e l m o d t h c h m a y s p  
m e n t e t r y o g n T h e c l m f t h e s  
e g m e n t i s w i t h u d c t E t h e t h d h a s e l l  
d e l p e d c l m d u s w h h r v a s g d u s  
f t h e n g l e l g a d T h r a s m t h  
a n d g e t m a l S m p e e s m y e e d 6

i n h e s i n l n g t h T h e r e a r e f m o n e t o 223 t e n t a  
l e o n t h e f i r s t e g m e n t S e t a e m a y o c c u r i n  
g r o u p s t h e e a r e q u i t e d i f f e r e n t f r m a n n e l i d  
t

A g a g l n m a f n e r c h i t u a t e i n a  
r e p h a l c l l e i n t h e f i r s t e g m e n t a n d a l i g n t u d  
n l n r e c o r d i n t h e y s i d e m i l e n t l e n d r e  
g a d e d a d r l

T h e r e a r l g a d i n a l d r a l a n d n t r a l l l d  
c l s n d a v e t r a l e a r t B l o o d : d i f f w  
f o r w a r d i n t h e m t r a l v e l a n d b a c k i n t h e d r l

T h e e x c a r e p a r a t e T h e t e t a r e e n r m  
a d w i t h t h r d t f i l l t h e e n t i r e p e r i r l l f  
o f t h e t r u n k I n f e m l e s t h e a r e c o s y l e n  
t r i r h a l f t h e t r u n k T h e g g s a r e l a r g f e w i n  
n u m b e r e l o n g a t b l a t e a l l y s y m m e t r i c a n d  
l a l y l y k e d C l e a g e s t t a l u n j a l a n d d  
t r m i n a t I t s n e t h e r p i r a l n r r a d i a l b u t u n q  
t t h g r o u p T l e a n l i a t p o r e l i t t e a m a l  
p l e b e c o m e s n t e r o T h e c o e l m t e n t r c o l l e  
n d t h e t h r e e e g m e n t s b e c o m e d i t t e a l s  
T h e r e n f r e e w i m m g l a r v a e i n t h e p e r i e  
d e b e d

T h e P o g o n p h r a l a v b e e n b i a t e d o n l y f r m  
t h e a b o i t m s d l l y a t g r e a t d e p t h l e g i n  
n i n g w i t h t h e d c e r y f i l m l l a b l a l y P  
U c h k o I 1933 h e f u n d t h s p e c i e i n t h S e a  
o f O k h t k a t d e p t h t 3500 m e t e r s M a j e c  
m e n s h s i n c e b t a k e n m a n y a b o t a r e  
t i c a n d t o p i a l T h e y o c c u p y l a m e l l e d c h i t n  
l i k a b c h u n g t b e s a d e a p r a e n t l  
d n t a r y T h e m o d f f e e d i n g i l g h l c n j c  
t f b e c u f t h e a l e f i l t n a l a l i m e n t  
t y t r a c t u a l l y f n d i n h i g h e r m a l t a t  
a n p a u c i t h a l e e p p d t a t t h e  
t t f c t c h f i n p a r t c u l t e m t t r w h h d i  
g e n d e t r a e l l u r l y

T w r d e s r e r g i z e d t h A t h e a n e p h r i a  
n d t h T h e e p h w h i c h m t a i n f o r f a m i l e  
d e e n g e r C h a a t s o f t a x o n m e v a l u e  
r e t h d h e e p l i t o n t h e s k t h b r d l e  
d t h e t a l l d d f e r e t g e r t h b a s o f  
t h t e n t c u l w i e t h e r n l h r h o  
h p e d r p r a l

A t f i r s t o n d e d t o b p l y c h a e t d e t  
a p r t a a c l b y K J f a s i n 1937 t h e  
P n p h o a n w g n a l l y t e d a p h y  
l t h B c h a t a T h r e c l l y e l e d t t h  
E n t m t a d E c h i n o d m c h o d a t c m p l e  
( D u t e r t m i ) S e A N I A L K I N G D O M A T H E  
C A E P H R I A B R C H I A T A C L E A V A C L E M B R Y O I C  
C O L O T E N T E R O P N E U S T A O I L M T H E C A N P H R I  
[ T h b d ]

## Poinsett's method

A m t h o d f d e b g b y m m f g e m e t  
l n t u c t t h e m o t o f a g i d l d y w i t h  
m t f i d s p a e d w i t h e t o q u e o m  
m t t g o n t h e b d y b t t h f i x e d p t I f a  
d b o d y n t r n d t r t t b o t m o o t h  
f i d x d r n o m e n t s e c p t h e d e t  
t h a e a t o s t h m t n i s s m p l y o n o f o

Location	Type of hinge					
	Lophodont	Merodont	Entomodont	Lobodont	Schizodont	Amphidont
Left valve						
Anterior	Groove	Loculate groove	Loculate groove	Loculate pit	Biloculate socket	Socket
Anteromedian	Ridge	Denticulate ridge	Short dentate ridge	Lobate boss	Bifid tooth	Conical tooth
Median	Ridge	Denticulate ridge	Long denticulate ridge	Smooth or denticulate bar	Denticulate bar	Smooth or denticulate bar
Posterior	Groove	Loculate groove	Loculate groove	Loculate groove	Loculate socket	Loculate socket
Right valve						
Anterior	Ridge	Dentate ridge	Dentate ridge	Lobate boss	Bifid stipitate tooth	Stipitate tooth
Anteromedian	Groove	Locellate groove	Short wide locellate groove	Loculate pit	Biloculate socket	Socket
Median	Groove	Locellate groove	Long narrow locellate groove	Smooth or locellate groove	Locellate groove	Smooth or locellate groove
Posterior	Ridge	Dentate ridge	Dentate ridge	Dentate ridge	Lobate reniform tooth	Lobate reniform tooth

After P. C. Sylvestre and Bradley

racic appendages are similar in structure and all are adapted for locomotion. The caudal rami are very small and extremely mobile. The ejaculatory ducts are lacking. *Bairdia hesidea* and *Bythocypris* are the principal genera in this family. Species have been collected from marine habitats in widely separated geographical regions. [F.F.]

**Extinct ostracods.** The Podocopa (Ordovician Recent) have many fossil representatives both marine and freshwater. The superfamily Cytheracea in particular is abundant in the Mesozoic and Cenozoic and has many taxonomic divisions. Nearly half of the fossil species described belong to this taxon.

**Hingement** which is important in their classification may be either simple with a groove in one valve accommodating the edge of the other or compound with the hinge of each valve divided into three or four elements. Six types of compound hinge are distinguished: (1) lophodont (2) merodont (3) entomodont (4) lobodont (5) schizodont and (6) amphidont. This series is more or less morphogenetic and certain evolutionary line following it have been developed. In general the anteromedian element developed secondarily and the terminal elements became dentate and then fused changing from a ridge and groove to a tooth and socket arrangement. [R.A.]

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## Poecilosclerida

An order of sponges of the class Demospongiae in which the skeleton includes two or more types of megascleres each localized in a particular part of the sponge colony. Frequently one type of megasclere is restricted to the dermis, another type occurs in the interior of the sponge. Sometimes one category is embedded in porous fibers, a second category usually spinose protrudes from the fibers at right angle. Spongin is always present but varies in amount from species to species. Microscleres are usually present, often several types occur in one species. A wide variety of microsclere categories is found in the order, but many are never present.

In shape poecilosclerid pores are encrusting, mainly lobate or branching. Deep canals of species often have bizarre shapes. Sponges of this order are

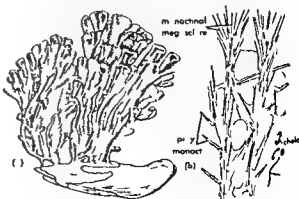


Fig. 2. (a) *Mcocypoda polifera* (b) *Spiculosa* of the m. p. g. (After Hym, 1940)

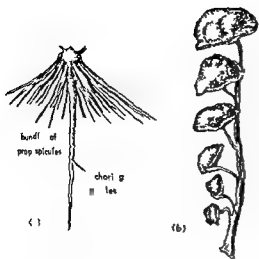


Fig. 2 Deposition of propagules from a bundle of propagules. (a) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (b) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (c) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (d) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (e) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (f) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (g) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (h) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (i) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (j) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (k) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (l) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (m) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (n) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (o) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (p) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (q) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (r) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (s) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (t) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (u) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (v) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (w) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (x) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (y) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant. (z) Epiphytic growth of a plant on a host plant.

to find all a drag from tidal water  
d pit 11 a 15500 met r  
F l p with kel ton mpa able to  
the f Rec nt p c i c r d s re altered  
ough the f l e c d f m Camb ant mes Un  
d b i p i l l r d p c u l are known f m  
T r y d e p o t S e D e t o p o n g i a e (w o n )

# Poeboioidea

A ph l m p o e d y W F h n 1946 f  
g l p e s P b s r o s H a t h A i t l  
i d y o f t h i p a r t l r p i e s e v l d i t b e a  
b e r r a t p l y h t e [ a c ]  
B b l g p h y H H e t h A t n g l k t  
t h A n n l d a a d t h E c h r l e ( l p h y e  
m a t ) f l f p h l 49 223-249 1930 C E  
P k f d l l t o l g a l d h t o h e m e l b r v a  
s p o a n b a t n l i d P b u s m s  
H t h l l p h l M O 287 319 1947

# Pogonophora

4 g p f a n m a l r g d e d t h a g l e l a f  
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b d p h a g m f m t h l g t r u n k g o n r  
e d e d t h d g m t T h t k b d d e d  
t p r e n l e c t o c o n t a n g f h r t  
m i m p o r t f l l w d b y l n g n m e t  
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e g m t h r e t o e l m b o d y a t y d  
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d e t y T h e m o d e o f f e d g i s h i g h l y n y c  
t a l b e u e o f t h e b e n f a l l t e r n l a l n  
t t r o t u e s l l y f u d h i g h e a n m a l t h t  
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g e s t e d e x t r l l r l y

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C O E L O E T E R O P H E L S T A O U I M T H E A N E P H  
[ T H B ]

# Poinso's method

A m t h o d f d e s c r i b e g b y m n f g r o m t  
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j g d b o d y t r e d t o r o t a b t a s m o o t h  
f i e d n d e n m m e n t e x c e p t t h d u t o  
t h x r e c t s n t h m o t i o n s i m p l y n e o f o n



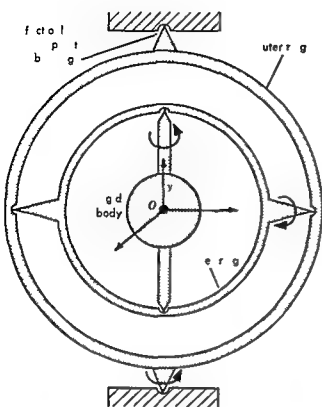


Fig 1 Cardan suspension. Point  $O$  of the rigid body is fixed in space while the body is free to rotate about any axis in space under no external moments.

stant angular velocity. If however the body is constrained to move with only one point fixed in space the motion even with no moment acting about that point is much more complicated. Furthermore the motion in this latter case is identical to that of a rigid body relative to its own center of mass and it is therefore a more general type of motion for those cases where zero or negligible moments act about the center of mass. Such a body might be a top spinning on a frictionless table in a gravitational system, a body mounted within a Cardan suspension, or a spinning rocket flying in space outside of the atmosphere but in a gravity field. See CENTER OF MASS.

**Cardan's suspension:** Consider a heavy body mounted with only one point fixed constructed from light rings in an arrangement known as Cardan's suspension. In Fig 1 point  $O$  is the fixed point and it is assumed that the frictional torques can be made negligible and that the mass of the suspension system compared with the heavy body is negligible.

Let  $O$  be the center of a coordinate system composed of the principal axes of the body  $x, y, z$  with unit directional vectors  $i, j, k$  respectively.

The vector angular velocity  $\omega$  and vector angular momentum  $H$  of the body are

$$\omega = \omega_x i + \omega_y j + \omega_z k \quad H = I_x \omega_x i + I_y \omega_y j + I_z \omega_z k \quad (1)$$

where  $I_x, I_y, I_z$  are moments of inertia about the  $x, y, z$  axes respectively and the products of inertia are zero about the principal axis (see RIGID BODY

DYNAMICS) The kinetic energy of the body is constant and is

$$T = \frac{I_x \omega_x^2 + I_y \omega_y^2 + I_z \omega_z^2}{2} \quad (2)$$

The angular momentum  $H$  is constant in magnitude and direction. Its magnitude is given by

$$H^2 = (I_x \omega_x)^2 + (I_y \omega_y)^2 + (I_z \omega_z)^2 \quad (3)$$

From (1) and (2)

$$\omega \cdot H = 2T \quad (4)$$

**Ellipsoid equations:** If now a line  $OA$  called the invariant line is drawn in the fixed direction of  $H$  (Fig 2) and  $OB$  is the vector angular velocity  $\omega$  at any instant then the line  $BC$  drawn perpendicular to  $OA$  determines line  $OC$  such that

$$OC = \frac{\omega \cdot H}{H^2} \quad (5)$$

From (4) and (5)

$$OC = \frac{2T}{H}$$

Therefore  $C$  is a fixed point and the plane through  $C$  normal to  $OA$  is a fixed plane called the invariant plane. The terminus of  $\omega$  (point  $B$  in Fig 2) moves on the invariant plane during motion of the rigid body.

If point  $B$  has coordinates  $x, y, z$  then

$$\omega = x i + y j + z k$$

and Eq (2) becomes

$$I_x x^2 + I_y y^2 + I_z z^2 = 2T \quad (6)$$

Equation (6) is the equation of the Poinsot ellipsoid which is fixed in the rigid body tangent to the invariant plane at  $B$  and with center at  $O$ . The semiaxes are given by

$$a = \sqrt{\frac{2T}{I_x}} \quad b = \sqrt{\frac{2T}{I_y}} \quad c = \sqrt{\frac{2T}{I_z}}$$

As the body moves the ellipsoid rolls on the invariant

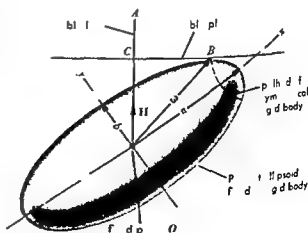


Fig 2 Poinsot's method

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 40 The d al p t th (+ l) t pl f  
 mb th th (+ l) t e S ANA  
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## Point source

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 the dat p p g tes d ally t h l n  
 h h the me th ng ph l wa )  
 m th p t e t f gy d  
 d th t h t ty f th d t n d a  
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 g mp d t the d m f th e the  
 e q l w m y b g d p pr mat o  
 I VE SEQU RE LAW [T H H]

## Point contact diode

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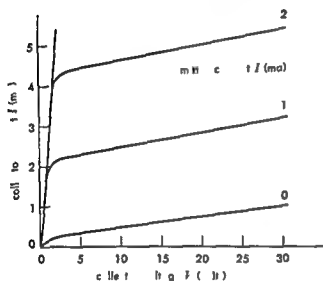
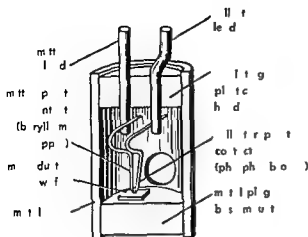
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 ty type) In an n t y p e m c n d u c t r t h m a j r i t y  
 electr e m m o l l i z d l y the b r r a d a l a  
 which re d s the m i d c t r p t i e w t h r e  
 p e c t t l m t a l r e p e l the p i t h l e (elec  
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 the met l d a r l a t e l y f g c u r r e t f l w t h a t  
 low t n i p r e t F r p t y p e m i n  
 d t the b r r r m p e d e s h l e and the l i p o l a  
 u i e e e d f the h g h a d l w r e t a n  
 nd t

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 d t g s r e t a s p e d i g e t n e i  
 e e w t h the b r r r T l e f r w a d u e n t s l i m  
 t e d by th m t a c e w h i l the m e r s e c u r n t i  
 l i m i t e d by the ba The s p e d g r t a n e  
 t d l y d a w t h i g f r w d r r e t  
 l i a f h e t m d the n j e t i o n f m o i t y  
 s S TRANSISTO

In th e s e d e t n the e a b r a k d w n p h e  
 m e t r e l t l y h g h l t a g e d e e t h r t  
 h a t a a l h g of th m n t y a r i e s  
 p g t l u g h the h g h f i l d b r e e g n  
 [L P H U]

## Point contact transistor

A t a t n w h h t h e m t t e n d l l e t c n  
 i f m e t l p o t t c t s l l y p e d n t h  
 f e f a b l k f m c d t Th s u l  
 f i g t w t h b o t h p t t h m f a c  
 d a b u t 2 m l p t (e l l t t i o ) a l t h u g h  
 g d d e h a a l s h e m e d e w t h p i n t  
 g v t d e s f t h n w i e f s e m n d t  
 Th t y p f t r a s t w t h f i t r a t l h k  
 d t e d Th e m t c m m n t y p e u s n t y p  
 m c n d t m t l b e r y l l u m e p p e m i t r  
 p t m t e l a d p h p h l l t p i t  
 m t l l i f b t the r f f t h m c  
 d t e f l l y l p p e d n d t h e d Th h a p  
 p o t m h a l l y e m b l d w t h m e p i n g



Point contact transistor cutaway and characteristics

pressure against the surface. The collector point is electrically pulsed in the reverse direction with sufficient voltage and total energy to cause electrical breakdown. The point of contact is heated nearly to the melting point of the semiconductor. The pulse duration is a millisecond or less. The result of this electric forming procedure is to increase the current multiplication factor  $\alpha$  of the collector point from something much less than unity to the order of 100. The injection efficiency  $\gamma$  of the point emitter is about 0.3 and the transfer efficiency is about 1.0 so that the overall current gain  $\alpha$  of the device is 30. See TRANSISTOR.

The electrical forming process beside increasing  $\alpha$  also increases the collector barrier leakage current  $I_m$  so that at a collector voltage of 10 volts a typical point contact device will draw 1 milliampere in the absence of emitter current. This compares to 1 microampere for a junction transistor under the same condition.

Point contact transistor can be made with frequency range up to 100 megacycle and power rating of 200 milliwatt. They can be used quite conveniently for oscillators and flip flops because their  $\alpha > 10$  causes them to have a negative resistance

characteristic when the base is used as an input. They have not achieved widespread acceptance because of the variability of their characteristics and because of their relatively high cost.

[LFRH]

*Bibliography* W. Shockley, *Electrons and Holes in Semiconductors*, 1950.

## Poison

A substance which by chemical action and in low dosage can kill or injure living organisms. Broadly defined, poisons include chemical toxic for any living form, microbes, plants or animals. For example, antibiotics like penicillin, although nontoxic for mammals, are poisons for bacteria. In common usage, the word is limited to substances toxic for man and mammals, particularly where toxicity is a substance's major property of medical interest. Because of their diversity in origin, chemistry, and toxic action, poisons defy any simple classification. Almost all chemicals with recognized physiological effects are toxic at sufficient dosage. The same compound may be considered a drug or a poison depending on dosage, effect, or intended use.

**Origin and chemistry.** Many poisons are of natural origin. Some bacteria secrete toxic proteins (for example, botulinum diphtheria and tetanus toxins) among the most poisonous compounds known (see TOXIN, BACTERIAL). Lower plants notorious for poisonous properties are ergot (*Claviceps purpurea*) and a variety of toxic mushrooms. Ergot, a fungal parasite of rye, has been the source of numerous epidemics of poisoning from the use of contaminated rye flour. The fungus contains many different alkaloids, some of which are also useful drugs. Among the best known toxic mushrooms are the fly agaric (*Amanita muscaria*) containing muscarine and the destroying angel (*Amanita phalloides*) whose toxic agents are phalloidin and amatoxin. See MUSHROOM.

Higher plants which constitute the major natural source of drugs contain a great variety of poisonous substances. Many of the plant alkaloids double as drugs or poisons depending on dosage. These include curare, quinine, atropine, meconine, morphine, nicotine, cocaine, picrotoxin, strychnine, lysergic acid, and many others. Some of the alkaloids are used in classical antiquity (conium as the toxic agent of the extract of pitted hemlock, *Conium maculatum*, drunk by Socrates). Some are of prehistoric antiquity (quinine and curare were used by South American Indians before the advent of European). A detailed first-hand record of man (the opium poppy) is believed to have been cultivated in the Stone Age. See ATROPINE, COCAINE, MORPHINE, QUININE.

Poisons of animal origin (venoms) are similarly diverse. Toxic marine animals include examples of every phylum from Protista (dinoflagellates) to Chordata (a number of fish). Insects and snakes represent the best known venomous land animals, but on land, too, all phyla include

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e e h m l i j r y t o t h l e d th v e  
som tum f o m t h r l w d g W th e r t a n  
po con f i h || p a h i g d g f a t a t o n n  
l d al p b l t y e r t

Chemical correlations S p e p e t  
f i h m l i f m th i m t t c m pl  
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i t n h a n d f i g l u f to t y H w  
e v f a c t e d t n h e m l i e t r  
l t th t x c e t n M y o f th h l i a t d  
h d o c a b f o m p l ( b n t e t r h l d e )  
f m l t x z y f t h h a t n d k d e r s  
A n m b f l k v l p h p h t s d p p y l f i o  
ph phat i t r th l y p h p h t a d r e l d n  
em p o d ) r y p o t i n h b t s f i t h n  
r m a t y l h l t e d p d t n t  
e t f i p h l g e a l c h a g e s g f m th i c  
i t f i t h t m A m b f i t r t c  
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Physiological actions The acti n of poi n i  
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k i d n y l e r b r a n b n e m a r r w ) a p p e a r s t l e  
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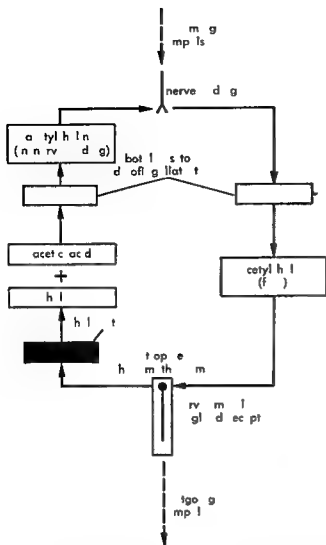


Fig 1 Acetylcholine cycle. The inhibition of cholinesterase prevents the breakdown of acetylcholine by acting on cholinesterase (black). Botulinus toxin diffuses (grey) to the nerve end of acetylcholine. Curare acts on the receptor (hatched grey) to block the chemical stimulus. (Adapted from Science America 1959)

cholinesterases (neostigmine, physostigmine and the alkyl phosphates) have the same general physiological effect although by a different mechanism. These compounds slow the heart, lower blood pressure, increase secretion of fluid into the respiratory tract and narrow the respiratory passage. Toxic doses may produce death by asphyxiation or by failure of the circulation. Poisons that prevent acetylcholine from producing skeletal muscle contraction are curare and a number of related synthetic compounds used in anaesthesia (succinylcholine, decamethonium). The drugs result in weakness of all voluntary muscle and may cause death through paralysis of respiratory muscles. Exaggeration of the normal effect of norepinephrine and epinephrine (adrenergic drugs) may produce dangerously high blood pressure, rapid heart action and sometime fatal disturbance of cardiac rhythm. See EPINEPHRINE.

Many normal functions (glandular secretion and contraction of voluntary and smooth muscles) depend on the cyclic release, breakdown and re-synthesis of acetylcholine at the ending of cholinergic (acetylcholine-secreting) nerve. The accompanying illustration indicates the different ways in which several distinct poisons may interfere with the normal operation of the acetylcholine cycle. In the acetylcholine cycle, an impulse reaching a nerve ending liberates acetylcholine which stimulates a receptor. The receptor is freed for further impulses by the enzyme cholinesterase which breaks down acetylcholine into acetic acid and choline. These are resynthesized by other enzymes into new acetylcholine.

**Mechanism of action.** More precise understanding of the mechanism of poisons requires detailed knowledge of their action in chemical terms. Information of this kind is available for only a few compounds and then in only fragmentary detail. Poisons that inhibit acetylcholine release are toxic actions traceable to a single blocked enzyme reaction, hydrolysis of normally secreted acetylcholine. Detailed understanding of the mechanism of chemical inhibition of cholinesterase is not complete but allows some prediction of chemical structure likely to act as an inhibitor.

Carbon monoxide toxicity is also partly understood in chemical terms. Since formation of carboxyhemoglobin, a form incapable of oxygen transport, is sufficient to explain the anoxic features of toxicity.

Heavy metal poisoning, in many cases, is thought to involve inhibition of enzymes by formation of metal mercaptides with enzyme sulphhydryl groups, the unsubstituted form of which is necessary for enzyme action. This is a general reaction that may occur with a variety of sulphhydryl-containing enzymes in the body. Specific susceptible enzymes whose inhibition explains toxicity has not yet been well documented.

Metabolic antagonists act as poisons functionally by competitive blocking of normal metabolic reactions (see ENZYME INHIBITION). Some antagonists may act directly as enzyme inhibitors, they may be enzymatically altered to form derivatives which are even more potent inhibitors at a later metabolic step. An example of the latter is the inhibition of incorporation of metal-olite analogs into muhammone complex molecule, particularly the incorporation into nucleic acids of altered purines or pyrimidines such as 8-azaguanine and 5-fluorouracil or the incorporation into proteins of altered amino acids such as *p*-fluorophenylalanine or 7-azatryptophan.

A well studied example of biological production of a highly toxic metal-like analog arose from studies of fluoroacetate, a toxic component of the plant of the genus *Dichapetalum*. Fluoroacetate is enzymatically converted to fluoroacetate through reaction and goes through the normal step leading from acetate to citrate. The fluorocitrate formed








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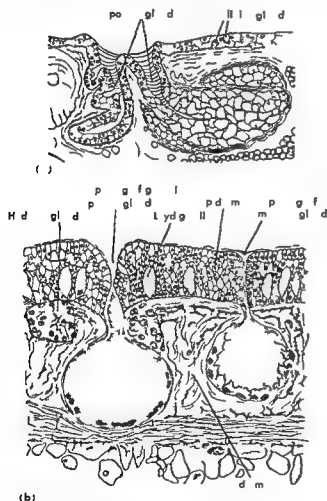
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products with information as to ingredients and quantitative toxicity. The authors of this book also proposed a useful scale of toxicity here reproduced in modified form with examples of specific toxic classes. See TOXICOLOGY [EAD]

**Bibliography** L. T. Fairhall *Industrial Toxicology* 2d ed 1957. M. N. Gleason, R. E. Gosselin, and H. C. Hodge *Clinical Toxicology of Commercial Products* 1957. W. S. Spector *Handbook of Toxicology* vol 1 1956. W. F. Von Oettingen *Poisoning: A Guide to Clinical Diagnosis and Treatment* 2d ed 1958.

## Poison gland

The specialized gland of certain fishes (illustration a) as well as the granular and some mucous glands of many aquatic and terrestrial Amphibia.



(a) Multicellular poison gland of catfish (modified from R. d.). (b) Amphibian skin gland (modified from A. B. Ellsworth and G. K. N. Bl.).

(illustration b) The poison glands of fishes are simple or slightly branched acinous structures which use the holocrine method of secreting a mucuslike substance. The poison glands of snake are modified oral or salivary glands. Amphibian glands are simple acinous holocrine with granular secretion. In some cases the amphibian poison glands produce mucus by a merocrine method

of secretion. The glands function as protective devices. See EPITHELIUM GLAND [O.E.N.]

## Poison ivy

A general name applied to certain species of the genus *Rhus* in the sumac family (Anacardiaceae). *Rhus radicans* is the poison ivy of eastern North America. *Rhus diversiloba* is the poison oak of Cal



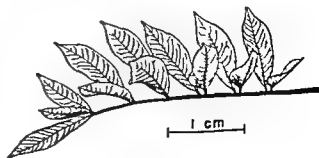
Leaf of poison ivy (L. H. Bailey, The Standard Cyclopedia of Horticulture vol 3, Macmillan 1937).

ifornia. These plants are natives of North America. Both cause ivy poisoning, an annoying and often painful dermatitis.

*Rhus radicans*, the most widespread species, is extremely variable. It has a bushy or climbing habit, 3-foliate leaves which are smooth and glossy or hairy, entire, toothed or lobed. Poison ivy bears white fruit which differs from the nonpoisonous sumacs with their red fruits. See HYPERSENSITIVITY [P.D.S.]

## Poison sumac

This plant *Rhus vernix* is a member of the sumac family (Anacardiaceae). It is an inhabitant of swamps ranging from Quebec to Minnesota and southward to Florida, Louisiana, and Texas. It is a tall bush or small tree bearing pinnately compound leaves with 7-13 entire (without marginal teeth) leaflets and drooping axillary clusters of persistent white fruits. Like poison ivy, this plant is poisonous to touch, causing in many persons a severe



Poison sumac *Rhus* (L. H. Bailey, The Standard Cyclopedia of Horticulture vol 3, Macmillan 1937).

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## Poisonous plants

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stocks which is a lethal poison See ROOT (BOTANY) The symptoms in man and animals are similar nausea vomiting difficult breathing and violent convulsions ending in death caused by respiratory failure Poison hemlock *Conium maculatum* contains in its fruits and leaves a volatile alkaloid conium which causes a gradual lessening of muscular power a rapid feeble pulse and gradual lung paralysis resulting in death See LEAF (BOTANY) Pokeweed *Phytolacca americana* has a poisonous root containing a toxic alkaloid and a glucoside which resembles a saponin The seeds apparently contain these same poisons See SEED (BOTANY) Symptoms of poisoning are vomiting purging spasms and sometimes convulsions which lead to ultimate death caused by paralysis of the respiratory organs

Plants containing the toxic alkaloids hyoscyamine and hyoscyne are henbane *Hyoscyamus niger* belladonna *Atropa belladonna* jimson weed *Datura stramonium* and matrimony vine *Lycium halimifolium* Symptoms of poisoning are headache dizziness nausea great thirst failure of vision and in the worst cases mania convulsions and death In this same family are several species of the genus *Solanum* including European bitter sweet *S. dulcamara* and black nightshade *S. nigrum* which contain the alkaloidal glucoside solanine Solanine poisoning in its commonest form produces symptoms of narcosis and paralysis In gastric poisoning it causes salivation vomiting bloating and diarrhea

Certain species of monkshood *Aconitum* contain the alkaloids aconitine and aconine in all parts of the plant but particularly in the roots and seeds The toxic principle causes muscular weakness difficult breathing weak pulse and bloating Poisoned horses and sheep often recover A number of species of larkspur *Delphinium* contain several toxic alkaloids which cause animals to lose appetite to stagger and in severe cases to fall and lie with legs rigidly extended Mayapple *Podophyllum peltatum* contains a bitter emetic substance podophyllin but because of the bitterness the plants are seldom eaten in amounts that are harmful to stock

Sheep laurel *Kalmia latifolia* and other species of this genus contain the toxic principle andromedotoxin which poisons goat horses and cattle It causes salivation increased nasal secretions emesis with convulsion and ultimately paralysis of the limbs Animals may remain ill for 2 or more days and then recover

Oleander *Nerium oleander* introduced to the southern United States as an ornamental shrub contains two glucosides having properties similar to those of digitalis glucosides Sheep goats horses cattle and poultry have been poisoned by eating the leaves Symptoms of poisoning are nausea vomiting colic vertigo drooping of pulse irregular heart action bloating diarrhea unconsciousness respiratory paralysis and finally death

Various grasses including rye barley and occasionally wheat sometimes become infected with a fungus *Claviceps purpurea* (see FUNGI) In the heads of such grasses whole grain are replaced by dark hard cylindrical bodies called ergots which eventually function in reproduction of the fungus Ergots are poisonous to stock and if permitted to eat infected plants either in pasture or in hay the animals develop a diseased condition becoming emaciated and often covered with sores In the worst cases portions of their tail or ear may be loughed off In females abortion may occur [P.D.]

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## Polar meteorology

The application of meteorological principles to a study of atmospheric conditions in the earth's high latitude or polar cap region northern and southern The zones develop distinctive atmospheric character basically because of the obliquity of sun rays and the alternation of long periods of darkness and daylight (see GEOGRAPHY MATHEMATICAL) Although solar radiation or its absence gives rise to the polar atmosphere its strongly contrasting winters and summers other phenomena exert important influence These include elevation of the surface of the earth's surface (oil water thin no thick ice) the size of continents and ocean and their relation with respect to circulation patterns

Winter During dark low sun or winter seasons on the atmosphere the sun permits cooling of the no surface and overlying atmosphere The earth's surface because it is essentially a gray or black body radiator cools more rapidly than the atmosphere This causes the characteristic polar temperature inversion or temperature increase with height In a sunless cloudless atmosphere the extent of temperature inversion depends on the relative magnitude of compensating nonradiative heat fluxes—principally turbulent transfer of heat in the air and heat conducted in the snow

Surface temperature Rapid change as well as extremes are characteristic At the South Pole

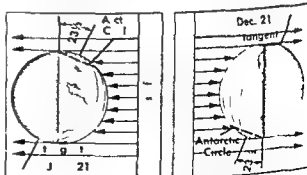
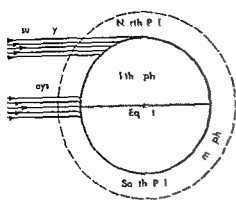


Fig 1 The angle of light between the declination of the sun and the axis of the earth during the day. The angle of light between the declination of the sun and the axis of the earth during the day.



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 t r r r o f f e n a b l e s t h e b l d u p o f i c e t h o u  
 s a d s o f f e e t t h u c k e t h y e r s

Upper a p t t e s A b o e t h e h a l l o w s i r f a e  
 i n v e s t i o n a t e m p a t d e c r e a s e w i t h h e g h t  
 u l t i m e t p p i e h e d I f t h e l o w e r t o p  
 p h e i s w a m -60 t o -75 F t h t h e t r o p p a u e  
 i e i q t s h a r p B t i f t h e t t p h e i s  
 m l d -90 t o -110 F t h e t r o p p a m a y h m e  
 a l l d e f i n e d T h i s d i s a p p e a r a n c e o f t h w t e r t r p o  
 p w a t h g h t t l e c h a r a c t e r i t l y f  
 t h e A t a r c t i c t m p h e e b u t i t i s n o w b r v e d  
 w h e n c o l d i n t e c y l e s a p r e e t i s t h e A r c  
 t i c a t s p h e e H i g h g m r a d i o n d e s s m  
 t i m e l i w h a t a p p e a r t b e t h e r t r o p p a  
 n e 18 k m

I b o t h p l r s t r a t p h e s a t g h o r i z t a l  
 t m p e r a t u r g r e d i e n t u a l l y e x t e n d a c r s t h e  
 t w l g h t z n e w h i n t u r m s e a s t r a n g w n d  
 j e t , c a l l e d t h e p o l a r g h t j e t I n t h e A r c t i c t h e  
 d e g n e t i n f t h j e t f m a q u a n a l f l w t  
 a m e a n d e e d d y f l o w t e n s h e f r e  
 r e t r n o f t h e n a n d m y r e l i f r o m t h l g e  
 t n e n t a l c e n t r a t i n t h e N t h e r n H m  
 p h e T h i s d d y i n g m t i o w h i s c a t d  
 w i t h m k e d w r r i g a l e d i t b t e s t h n e  
 e r t d d t h e l w e r s t r t s p h e e b y t h e a c t i f  
 s o l u t r l e t d i a t o t m o p h r i c y g e n  
 I c o n t r t t h A n t a t i t r a t o p h e r i j e t d  
 t c h g e t m a l c h a r t e r u d g o i f i  
 t w m i n t i l t e r t u r f t h u n

Summer T h e r m f t h m y t p o l r  
 g p r o f n d l y c h a g e t h t m p t u r c l u d  
 a d w i d g m e T h m t r p d h e a t g r  
 i n t i l w a t p h e w h t h e l a l t  
 l t r d i a t n s t o g l y a b s o r b e d b y o e I n  
 A t a t e a t h e s t a t p h c h t i g i s a r p i d  
 t h t t w m t h s t h e w n t e p i t f i t g  
 p l w d t m p a t d e a e s e e d C e  
 q u e n t l y t h t e p l y c l e w t h t l  
 t m p t i s r -110 F f i e b o m e s a w k  
 a t c y l o n w t h c e t l t m p e a t n e a r -40 F  
 B e u e i t h e h g h l b e d f l e t i t y f  
 w t l r d a t (80-90 f t h i c d t  
 d t ) t h e a m o t f b b e d d i t i  
 m l l b t g d a l l y t h t r n w k d  
 b l t e t h s u f i e t I o n t i t a l  
 w h e t h s n w m t l e s t h t h e n w  
 m l t n d e x p t h e b g r u d w h c h t h m  
 h p a t l l y l l f t h d t d t d  
 p d l y w a m t o t e m p a t u r l f m d d l  
 l t t d s i t h A r t p a k m l t s d  
 l l y ( a m h s 3 f e t ) p a w t l d p p  
 d t h e a l b d d c r t o a l m t 50 c p A t c  
 t e m p e r t e r e m 32 F b u t t h  
 a e d p p l y f w t p f m e p t  
 g e s f r m t f l w a t l d a d f  
 I A t t a s y f m p d m o u n  
 k d t h d a k f m t h s e r y l t l  
 w m l t e p t H e l b d o m  
 h g h n d w k r i m y l e f u d  
 n m m F g d t t l d a m

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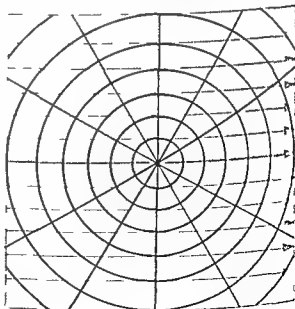


Fig 1 A polar graph grid with a polar grid.

The lambd appears at un et during which t me  
 extra ls l st ne (480 ) around the h r r on  
 he pe od of eral d ys that occurs each spring  
 d ut m hen the un s bl w the h r r on b t  
 x d se to t for the cele tial bod e to b ble  
 e t t me fr n agation b cau e f the  
 reat d p nde ce upon cele tial bod e for both  
 e t d d rect o d t e m at on

**Celestial sphere and time patterns** The diurnal motion of celestial bodies is essentially horizontal. Half of the celestial sphere is always visible to each pole of the earth; the half always below the horizon is invisible. The diurnal motion is significant only when there are time measurements together. The time of day zone would be about equally as factually as common practice to keep Greenwich mean time.

**Meteorological factors** Temperatures regent  
 By low but of as low as in hit be upp el it is  
 true th t th c id t atmo pher tempe tures re  
 c ded h e b en th Ant ct c ntia n but  
 temp t at the No th Pole are ne e as l w a  
 som ded in Yell t ne N t i Park A  
 tho gh few pl c in Ant t ca eve get ab e  
 f enng much of th Ar t d s reg la i y ea h  
 mmer A temp tu of 100 f ha been rec ded  
 with A t C le

The polar regions are relatively dry but because of the low prevailing temperatures fog and clouds are common. Visibility may be limited by blowing snow in the tropics the polar ice precipitation is light though the area receives melted desert. Nevertheless over much of the tropics a thick eddy of completely melted water is common. Large quantities of ice are also blown inland in the winter. When the temperature of the atmosphere is exceptionally low in the polar regions the temperature is so low that the clouds are frozen and the temperature is so low that the clouds are frozen and the temperature is so low that the clouds are frozen.

The t n g e t surf ce w n d s m the w o r l d  
p b l y n t e d e r t a n g f A t a r  
t a c . h e s p e e d f m e s h n 0 0 k n t s a e t  
n u l O r t h e A t t c O a h w e v e i r n g  
u n d t n c o n t e r d e e p t n a m r e g i o n a

The d t n s d s c r b e d e p r m a t i l y e p n  
 b l f t h d f f e n b t w e n g i n n p l a r  
 r g u d e l e h r T h e s w e l l d e f i n e d l  
 f d m t n b e t w n p o l a g n a n d a b  
 p l g r n r t h u i r a l g e m t a s  
 t t h d s t i n f p l e g F o t h e p r p e  
 i t h d s c u h w e r t h e p a l l i f i a t i d  
 o a e n n i l y b u d g n r l d i d n g  
 f r e p l a g d n g a t o s i l l y i m i t d t t h  
 t i d p l e w d f t h a p a l l e l  
 P l o t t i n g

Plotting hazards Plots pl gn  
st gly affected by th b ne fay yr at n m  
ber f d t n et n Al natu l l wdm ks  
m not bot th hat rmy bed fi ul  
t d if The app nce f m l ndm rks  
h g r s me kedly d dff nt e c nd i o  
Wh n w both the la da i awd

foot attached to the shore and extending for miles to the word even the shore line is difficult to locate. Adjacent islands sometimes merge together as the ice sheets between them fill up completely with ice. Along a rugged coast such as that of much of Greenland, the covered landlands may look alike.

**Unreliability of charts** Charts of polar regions are less reliable than those of other regions because of the relatively little surveying that has been done in the polar areas. Attempts to fix the position of a craft can be discouraging when the only landmarks used are not charted in correct position relative to each other. Many navigators sometimes plot position relative to land known to be shown in the wrong place rather than in the correct geographical position because it is the land and its attendant hazards that on titute danger to their crew.

**Limitations of electronic applications** Ele  
t m and a m t b ndant n p l r regions Lor n  
co e ge xte d to m parts f th Arct Radar  
us ful b t p e t e c e i n t e p e t i n f t e  
p e n p o l r e i o s e n t i a l f r e l a t i e r e s u l t s  
Th i p a t i c u l a r l y t r u e i n a r a f t w h e r e  
t h r e l a t v a p p a r a c e o f w t d l d a e f  
l e n e s i n w t e a n d s u m m e H m m h e d i c e  
p r e t a d f i e t a p p e r a n c f m u n l o k e n e  
A r a d d r e t i n f i d e r a m e f u l w h e n r a d i g  
a l a a b l e E x p e a t n t h e n r t h e n e s t  
o f t h U S S R f w d b e a r e a l l a b l e Th  
u s o f e l e c t r o n i c i n p l a r r e g n i f u t h r r e m  
i c t e d b y m a g n t s t m s w h i c h r e p a r t i c u l a r l y  
s e e t h a u t o a l n

Difficulties of dead reckoning Reliable dead  
reckoning depends upon the stability factors  
mainly the speed of the vessel (or speed)  
Some difficulties are due to the meeting of the  
requirements of the regulations

l g l y b y a t p a The c m p a e s n m m o n  
 u e a the m g t i w h h t h d r e t e l e  
 r n t t m p t s l g n t e l f w i t h the h o n t a l  
 m j e n t f t h a t s m a g n e t c f l d n d the  
 t h k n g g y m m w h h t h e d r e t l m e n t  
 n m p t i l g n i l f w i t h t a t h a x i s f o t a  
 t o n T h m g n e t c m p a b e o m e s u n r e l a b l e i n  
 t h v t y o f t h m a g n t u p l s f t h m t h a n d  
 t h e t h k g g v r m p a s b e c m s u l b l e  
 n t h t y f t h g e g a p l c a l p l e f t h e  
 a r t h T h e m g e t c a n d g e o g r a p h c a l p o l e  
 b o t h h g h l t t u d e n d t h a r n w h l t h e  
 m p a r o s r e l a g e n d s m e w h t e a t  
 r l p l t h s f r q e t e h c k n d o m  
 p i r e u e d e d T h d e t l g y r o m p a s s  
 w i e l y s e d n a a f t p r t g i p o l r e

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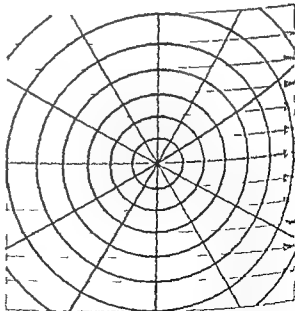


Fig. 1. A polar stereographic chart with a polar grid.

to the es el cru h it It is ually cons dered  
 ent r t keep m in n the gen ral d rection d  
 red than t ask m pl t topp e with p s bl  
 lam ge by sta e a tly m the des ed c r e  
 With pl al k f idet led inf rmas n on cu  
 t th f tle pp rtunity to acqu e it mak  
 n n e d d recho ng diffi lt p l r reg ns  
 Celestial n i at o s f great imp t ne m  
 pola reg fte provd th nly mea of  
 determ i p t n ural ly r e tabl hn  
 d e cu al fer m

Celestial navigation problems In w lt the  
 use of a tati th m as t t th f i  
 t des tbo d h p marine sta t a be d  
 be cl tal b des nd r h z ar l th a l  
 able oc r n e m o s f q e t n m o t cea  
 a s at l lat d s Sin m the pack mooth the  
 se re ult g e y l tle ll g o r p t h of a  
 h p perat ng in s e ome mar ne na gat s ha n  
 f d n ar t f i c l h o a n ev nt of the type car  
 ed ar st ful. If the a cel at on e r  
 too gr t abo rd h p baerv ton f v n n ar by  
 u k e n y be pos ble

Wh pe t l w r latit des na s  
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 th f r m t h h s usu lly with at fact v  
 r e h

Do g th pola m m r the f t n the  
 pl less l b dy a labl Th mo n ab e  
 th b r i half the t m but s a fa bl p  
 t n elat t th s du ng l v ly few day  
 a h m th Wh nly n b dy a labl t  
 h e r v e d at freq n t t r a l p h a t h l y d  
 v e n e s f r u n f i x p l t t e d  
 T m g f e l t l b r t l a t a l  
 pol r e s th n l w l t t d e b e p  
 p e r m t t h b d e n a l y h r t a l A  
 t e l e l v g e r r o n l t d th f f e c t f  
 t e r a t m r e l t e l m l n l  
 a s h e t h m d a c e l e t g t h r  
 a s h i r e d c t pol r g n s n s t a t t d d  
 b l p b l m Th m m t h l v  
 t o m m l l w l t t u d e s d p l  
 g n s m p l f i e d t b l r g h t b p p a d b t  
 p h y g a l l a d d f f f m l r  
 m e t h o d C r e t t a l v a t o x N c r i o x  
 P h o r x

Bl e p h y \ B d t h Am P c r t l  
 f t U S N a s H y d g p h O f f H O 9  
 l t g U S N a s H y d g s p h O f f A t \ g  
 n H O 10 19 5

### Polar triangle

Th p l t a g t l e n a p h e t h  
 p t f t h p h m w h p p d l r to th  
 p l f t h g i t t n t u r t h

sph = T btain the polar t angle f a spher al  
 t r a n l e A B C (see T R I C O N O M E T R Y S P H E R I C A L)  
 on s t r c t i o n i s p h e t h r e e g r t c i r l h a n g  
 r e p e c t u p l e A B and C. T w g e a t c l e n e  
 h a n l l and the t h e r C a p l e s i n t e r t i n t o  
 p o r t u s p u t h e m p l e d e f i n e d b y t h g r e a t  
 c i r c l e t h r o g h B C. D e n o t e A s t p o l a r t a n g l e o n  
 the s a m e h e m i s p h e a A L o a t e B a d C b y a  
 l i k e p o c e d u r e. The s p l r a l t a n g l e A B C s the  
 p l a r t r i a n g l e o f A B C. I n g e m e t r y p l a n e  
 that if n e p h e r i c a l t r a n g l e i the p o l a r o f a e  
 n d t h e n t h e e c o d i the p l a r o f t h e f i t A l  
 if the t r i n g l a r l e t t r e d i n the c o n v e t n a l  
 w a y t h e n

$$A + a' = B + b = C + c' = A + a = B + b = C + c = 180$$

[L M A]

### Polar wandering

The large cale cular mo ement of the terr tr al  
 pole the fact f i h m e m e t h i g h l a d o n  
 r t e d e n c e e m a t n s p u l a t i v. S u c h m o t i o n  
 i s n d d i t o n t o t h m a l l a t 14-m n t h c y c l  
 a r i t o n (C l a d l e m o t i o n). S e G r o o r s v

C o s i d l e e t f i c e s d e p s i t t r d a  
 r e l a t n h i p b e t w e e n p o s s i b l e p i r m i g t n a n d  
 m t o f the a t h s u b r t a l m a n t l e w i t h r e  
 s p e t t the a t h s h e a o e f t h e a r t h s i g d  
 s h e l l o r t v e r b l c k s w e r t o g l d e o n t h e  
 m v n g m e t a l e t a t h t h l l w l d y i e l d  
 a d d j u s t i h a g i n t h e d i r n o f t h e p l a  
 a s

S e t f d i l a l e n a n m a t e d r t h  
 t h r y o f w t w d d i s t o f the N w W l d o n t i  
 n e n t r e l a t o n t t h O l d W l d n t n t i n  
 t r o d c e d b y A W e g r n t h 19 0 ( a l  
 c e b a s f o r m t e S I B E R I A N T O P O G R A  
 P H Y). M y e n t i n w f e l t h a t t h r a t e f  
 u h d f t m u t b m n v t m e m l l e t h a s t m d  
 b y W g e e S m b l t h a t t l m t p e d  
 f t t t h t h A t n t Q a n b a s w i l l b e m e  
 b d —w h t h r f r n e t w a d d r i f t o f t h N w  
 W o l d c i n t n f m the O l d W l d n i n e t s  
 m a n w a d f o m b o t h m i n g a t w a d  
 b u t a t a h i h r r t m t w a r d f r the O l d W l d  
 t e n t T m a v t h l t e m s m t l k l y n d  
 f u s t h e o e f a d j u m e t t t r t r a n c n t o n  
 m m n t d t h f t m p o l a r a c

O h d t m c n t r b u t e r r o r l d i t l y  
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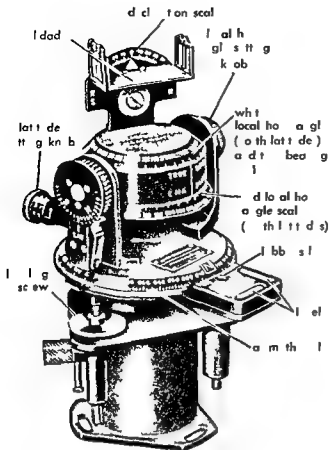


Fig 2 An astrocompass

regions but is not in general use aboard ship. See DEAD RECKONING.

**Celestial determination of direction.** Direction can be determined by means of celestial bodies but this is usually an instantaneous indication used to check the compasses unless a device equipped with a clock mechanism is used to provide more continuous information. Several types of devices have been developed to facilitate the use of celestial bodies for determination of direction. The oldest is the sun compass which utilizes the shadow of a shadow pin or gnomon and a suitable dial. This of course will not operate unless the sun is visible. A sky compass indicates direction of the sun by means of polarized light in the sky when the sun is near the horizon even though it may be below the horizon or otherwise obscured. This device may offer the only means of determining direction during the brighter part of the long polar twilight. A Canadian version is called a twilight compass because of the principal period of its use. An astrocompass shown in Fig 2 can be set for the coordinates of any celestial body and the latitude of the observer and then gives an indication of a magnetic true north and heading.

**Distance or speed problems.** Such measurement in polar regions presents no problems in air craft. When ships operate in ice however the measuring element in the water may be adversely affected or damaged by the ice. A method of determining speed or distance that has proved successful has been to track an iceberg or other prominent feature either visually or by radar. If the feature is stationary as

a grounded iceberg the result is speed or distance over the ground.

At best dead reckoning is difficult aboard a ship operating in the ice not only because of the difficulty encountered in measuring course and speed but also because neither of these may be constant for very long. Land ice which flows down to the sea and breaks off in the form of icebergs or ice lands is not usually a problem and may even prove beneficial. Its use as an aid in the determination of speed has been mentioned. Individual pieces are usually so large they move with deep-water currents often in a direction differing from that of the sea ice which moves mainly in the direction the wind blows. Thus an iceberg might clear a path in the desired direction of motion. One precaution is essential however. It is dangerous to approach close to an iceberg both because of possible under-water rams which might extend out for some distance from the berg and also because it is not uncommon for an iceberg to acquire unstable equilibrium because of uneven melting and capsize.

Ice formed at sea called sea ice is seldom an unbroken sheet over any very large area. The unequal pressure exerted by tides, currents and temperature changes produce stresses that break the ice and move different parts of it relative to each other producing leads, long cracks that have opened wide enough to permit passage of a ship, polynyas, large areas other than leads relatively free from ice or pressure ridges, ridges of ice piled up where two floes have come together under pressure.

A large field of floating pieces of ice which has drifted together is called the pack. If this is relatively loose as shown in Fig 3 a ship will all handled can negotiate it. If it is packed tightly under pressure however it must be avoided.

Successful negotiation of pack ice is the result of working with not against the pack seeking out weak spots, ramming when appropriate and retreating at other times taking advantage of leads and polynyas and avoiding heavy pressure that might



Fig 3 Pack ice





eral characteristics of the earth's magnetic field such as the north drift and counterclockwise rotation of India relative to the poles. Studies in geology and rock magnetism give evidence of past differences in location of the magnetic poles and of possibilities for location of the poles—for example the North Pole in Alaska during the Tertiary and during earlier geological times in India as Venning Meinerz assumes (see ROCK MAGNETISM). However, observation and analysis of present data are insufficient to warrant considering that the hypothesis of polar wandering is completely established. For a discussion of rotational wandering of the terrestrial pole, see NUTATION (ASTRONOMY AND MECHANICS) [WAH]

## Polar coordinate navigation systems

Systems in which one or more signals are emitted from a facility (or co-located facilities) to produce simultaneous indication of bearing and distance also called Rho theta systems. Since a bearing is a radial line of position and a distance is a circular line of position, the polar coordinate system always requires a position fix produced by the intersection of two lines of position which are at right angles to each other. Since the reference for both lines of position is at a common origin, computation for any course referred to this origin is simplified. See NAVIGATION SYSTEM—ELECTRONIC [PCS]

## Polarimetric analysis

A method of chemical analysis based on the optical activity of the substance being determined. Optically active material are asymmetric, that is, their molecules or crystals have no plane or center of symmetry. The asymmetric molecules can occur in either of two forms, *d* and *l*, called optical isomers. Often a third optically inactive form called meso also exists. Asymmetric substances possess the power of rotating the plane of polarization of plane polarized light. Measurement of the extent of this rotation is called polarimetry. Polarimetry is applied to both organic and inorganic materials. See OPTICAL ACTIVITY.

The extent of the rotation depends on the character of the substance, the length of the light path, the temperature of the solution, the wavelength of the light which is being used, the solvent (if there is one), and the concentration of the substance. In most work, the yellow light of the D line of the so-

dium spectrum (5893 Å) is used to determine the specific rotation.

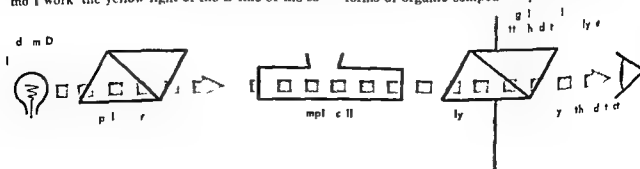
$$\text{Specific rotation} = [\alpha]_D^0 = \frac{\alpha}{l\rho}$$

where  $\alpha$  is the measured angle of rotation,  $l$  the length of the column of liquid in decimeters, and  $\rho$  the density of the solution. In other words, the specific rotation is the rotation in degree which the plane polarized light of the sodium D line undergoes in passing through a 10 cm long sample tube containing a solution of 1 g/ml concentration at 20°C.

In the simplified diagram of a polarimeter, light from the sodium lamp is polarized by the polarizer (a fixed Nicol prism) before it passes through the cell containing the material being analyzed. After the light passes through the cell, it passes through the analyzer (another Nicol prism) and then is detected by the eye or a photocell. A comparison of the angular orientation of the analyzer is measured on the scale with the cell empty and with the cell filled with solution serve to measure the rotation of the polarized light by the sample. This rotation may be either clockwise (+) or counterclockwise (−) depending on the substance in question.

Polarimetry may be used for either qualitative or quantitative analytical work. In qualitative applications, the presence of an optically active material is shown, and then a calculation of specific rotation often leads to the identification of the unknown. In quantitative work, the concentration of a given optically active material is determined either from a calibration curve or percentage of the constituent versus angular rotation or from the specific rotation, assuming the angular rotation to be a linear function of concentration. For the method of analysis to be useful, it is necessary that only one optically active material be present in solution.

Polarimetry is widely used in carbohydrate chemistry, especially in the analysis of sugar solutions. Polarimeters used for this work are specially designed and are called saccharimeters. Other materials often determined by polarimetry are tartaric acid, Rochelle salt (potassium sodium tartrate), various terpenes such as *d* and *l* pinene, many teroids, and other compounds of biological and biochemical importance. Since there is great difference between the biological activities of the different optical forms of organic compounds, polarimetry is widely



Simplified diagram of a polarimeter

the reflectivity at Brewster angle  $\theta$

$$I = R = A \cos \theta \quad (5)$$

the mathematical statement of the law of

of polarizing devices The angle  $\theta$  can be defined as the angle between the transmission plane and the plane of polarization. When the polarizer is placed at an angle  $\theta$  to the plane of polarization, the transmitted intensity is given by Malus's law. Such a device is called a polarizer. The efficiency of a polarizer is defined as the ratio of the transmitted intensity to the incident intensity.

A crystal can naturally make an unpolarized light into polarized light. This is called natural birefringence. The crystal is called a uniaxial crystal. The optical axis is the direction in which the light travels without being polarized. The crystal is called a uniaxial crystal.

In general, the optical axis is the direction in which the light travels without being polarized. The crystal is called a uniaxial crystal. The optical axis is the direction in which the light travels without being polarized. The crystal is called a uniaxial crystal.

Of the known substances, quartz is a uniaxial crystal. It has a high refractive index. The optical axis is the direction in which the light travels without being polarized. The crystal is called a uniaxial crystal.

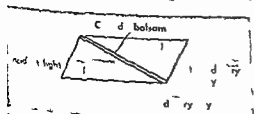


Fig 1 Natural uniaxial crystal with optical axis

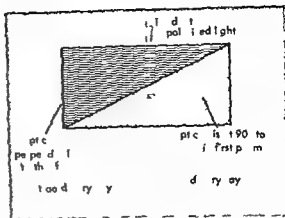


Fig 2 Uniaxial crystal

is greater than the critical angle for total reflection. The horizontal transparent film is a polarizer.

Canada balsam is not completely transparent in the ultraviolet wavelength shorter than 4000 Å. In the visible region, it is transparent. The refractive index of Canada balsam is 1.55. The critical angle for total reflection is 41.5°.

A different type of crystal is made of quartz. It is called a uniaxial crystal. The optical axis is the direction in which the light travels without being polarized. The crystal is called a uniaxial crystal.

In the uniaxial crystal, both the ordinary and the extraordinary rays are polarized. The ordinary ray is polarized perpendicular to the optical axis. The extraordinary ray is polarized parallel to the optical axis.

The extraordinary ray is polarized parallel to the optical axis. The ordinary ray is polarized perpendicular to the optical axis. The extraordinary ray is polarized parallel to the optical axis.

The extraordinary ray is polarized parallel to the optical axis. The ordinary ray is polarized perpendicular to the optical axis. The extraordinary ray is polarized parallel to the optical axis.

## Polarization of waves

Polarization is the phenomenon which is exhibited when a transverse wave is polarized. The term polarization is also used to describe the process of polarizing a wave.

In an unpolarized wave the vibrations in a plane perpendicular to the ray appear to be oriented in all directions with equal probability. In a polarized wave the displacement direction of the vibrations is completely predictable. For certain disturbances such as the transverse acoustic wave produced when a steel bar is struck, the polarization is complete. Electromagnetic radiation is normally unpolarized if it is generated by atomic processes (see ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION). Thus ultraviolet, visible and infrared radiations produced by heated bodies or electrical discharges are generally unpolarized. Radiation generated by vacuum tube oscillators or transistor oscillators is always polarized. The probability waves (matter waves) associated with atomic or nuclear particles are generally unpolarized. See QUANTUM MECHANICS.

Some of the different types of polarization as well as the technique of producing polarization in an unpolarized wave are described in another article (see POLARIZED LIGHT). The electric vector can lie in a plane or it can follow a path whose projection at right angles to the direction of propagation is a circle or an ellipse. The same types of polarization can be produced in any transverse wave. For example, see MICROWAVE OPTICS.

Electromagnetic radiation is difficult to polarize in certain spectral regions and few techniques exist for analysis. This is true in the ultraviolet below 1900 Å. No dichroic polarizers have been found for this region and transparent birefringent materials from which Nicol or Wollaston polarizing prisms could be made do not seem to exist. Polarization by reflection is possible but very little work has been done with this technique. In the infrared region from the end of the visible spectrum to approximately  $2\mu$ , sheet polarizers exist. To around  $4\mu$ , polarizing prism can be made. From  $4\mu$  to  $80\mu$ , reflection from a single plate or transmission through a pile of transparent plates is the common procedure. All the techniques produce linear polarization. Elliptical or circular polarization is more difficult to achieve.

X-ray photons, electron neutrons and other particles can be polarized most easily by scattering. [B H B I]

## Polarized light

Light which has its electric vector oriented in a predictable fashion with respect to the propagation direction. In unpolarized light the vector is oriented in a random unpredictable fashion. Even in a short time interval it appears to be oriented in all directions with equal probability. Most light sources seem to be partially polarized so that one fraction of the light is polarized and the remainder

unpolarized. It is actually more difficult to produce a completely unpolarized beam of light than one which is completely polarized.

The polarization of light differs from other properties in that human sense organs are essentially unable to detect the presence of polarization. The Polaroid Corporation with its polarizing sunglasses and camera filters has made millions of people conscious of phenomena associated with polarization. Light from a rainbow is completely linearly polarized so that the electric vector lies in a plane. The positions of polarizing sunglasses differ so that with such glasses the light from a section of the rainbow is extinguished.

According to all available theoretical and experimental evidence it is the electric vector rather than the magnetic vector of a light wave that is responsible for all the effects of polarization and other observed phenomena associated with light. Therefore the electric vector of a light wave for all practical purposes can be identified as the light vector. See ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION. LIGHT. POLARIZATION OF WAVES. For information which is closely related to much of the engineering discussion see CRYSTAL OPTICS.

One of the simplest ways of producing linearly polarized light is by reflection from a dielectric surface. At a particular angle of incidence the reflectivity for light whose electric vector is in the plane of incidence becomes zero. The reflected light is thus linearly polarized at right angles to the plane of incidence. This fact was discovered by E. Malus in 1808. Brewster's law shows that at the polarizing angle the refracted ray makes an angle of  $90^\circ$  with the reflected ray. By combining this relationship with Snell's law of refraction one finds that

$$\tan i = n \quad (1)$$

where  $i$  is the angle of incidence and  $n$  is the refractive index. This provides a simple way of measuring refractive indices. See REFRACTION OF WAVES.

**Law of Malus.** If linearly polarized light is incident on a dielectric surface at Brewster's angle (the polarizing angle) then the reflectivity of the surface will depend on the angle between the incident electric vector and the plane of incidence. When the vector is in the plane of incidence the reflectivity will be zero. When it is at right angles the reflectivity will be at a maximum. To compute the complete relationship the incident light vector  $A$  is broken into components, one vibrating in the plane of incidence and one at right angles to the plane.

$$A_1 = A \sin \theta \quad (2)$$

$$A_2 = A \cos \theta \quad (3)$$

where  $\theta$  is the angle between the light vector and a plane perpendicular to the plane of incidence. Since the component in the plane of incidence is not reflected the reflected ray can be written

$$R = A \cos \theta \quad (4)$$

the reflectivity at Brewster's angle. The intensity is

$$I = I_0 \cos^2 \theta \quad (5)$$

Thus the mathematical statement of the law of Malus is

**Linear polarizing devices** The angle  $\theta$  can be defined as the angle between the transmission axes of the polarizer and analyzer. When the polarizer and analyzer are parallel they transmit light. When they are perpendicular they do not. The first polarizer is called the polarizer and the second the analyzer. Such polarizers are called Nicol prisms. Only a small portion of the incident light is reflected as polarized light. Most of the light is transmitted as unpolarized light. Most of the light is transmitted as unpolarized light.

**Dichroic crystals** Certain natural materials absorb light of one polarization more than the other. Such materials are called dichroic. Dichroic materials are used in many applications. Dichroic materials are used in many applications. Dichroic materials are used in many applications.

**Birefringent crystals** Other natural materials exhibit the property of birefringence. Birefringent materials have two different refractive indices for light of different polarizations. Birefringent materials are used in many applications. Birefringent materials are used in many applications. Birefringent materials are used in many applications.

**Optical activity** Some natural materials rotate the plane of polarization of light. Such materials are called optically active. Optically active materials are used in many applications. Optically active materials are used in many applications. Optically active materials are used in many applications.

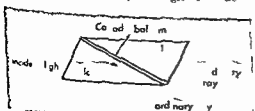


Fig. 1. Nicol prism. The ordinary ray is shown as a straight line, and the extraordinary ray is shown as a curved line.

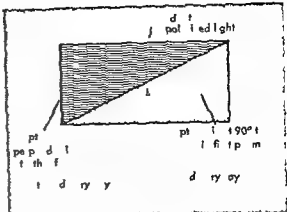


Fig. 2. Wollaston prism.

show that the critical angle for total reflection. Thus the horizontal distance for only one polarization is

Canada balsam is not completely transparent; the light is lost at the interface. The horizontal distance for only one polarization is. Canada balsam is not completely transparent; the light is lost at the interface. The horizontal distance for only one polarization is.

A different type of polarizer made of quartz was used by W. H. Wollaston and is shown in Fig. 2. Here the light is split into two rays, the ordinary ray and the extraordinary ray. The horizontal distance for only one polarization is.

In the Wollaston prism both beams are deflected and since the quartz is dispersive the beams are separated. The horizontal distance for only one polarization is.

**Shapiro's method** A thin film of quartz is placed between two polarizers. The horizontal distance for only one polarization is.

The end of the paper is folded into a small square. The horizontal distance for only one polarization is.

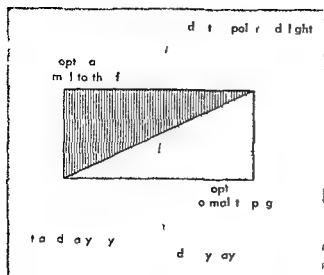


Fig 3 Rochon prism

chains apparently line themselves parallel to the PVA molecules and the resulting dyed sheet is strongly dichroic. A third type of sheet polarizer depends for its dichroism directly on the molecules of the plastic itself. This plastic consists of oriented polyvinylene. Because these polarizers are commercially available and can be obtained in large sheets, many experiments involving polarized light have been performed which would have been quite difficult with the reflection polarizers or the birefringent crystal polarizer. See VECTOGRAPH.

**Characteristics.** There are several characteristics of linear polarizers which are of interest to the experimenter. First is perhaps the transmission for light polarized parallel and perpendicular to the axis of the polarizer; second is the angular field; and third the linear aperture. A typical sheet polarizer has a transmittance of 48% for light parallel to the axis and  $2 \times 10^{-4}\%$  for light perpendicular to the axis at a wavelength of 550 mμ. The angular field is 60° and sheets can be many feet in diameter. The transmittance perpendicular to the axis varies over the angular field.

The Nicol prism has transmittance similar to that of the Polaroid, but a much reduced linear and angular aperture.

**Polarization by scattering.** When an unpolarized light beam is scattered by molecules or small particles, the light observed at right angles to the original beam is polarized. The light vector in the original beam can be considered as arising from the equivalent oscillators (nuclei and electrons) in the molecules. There is no longitudinal component in the original light beam. Accordingly, the scattered light observed at right angles to the beam can only be polarized with the electric vector at right angle to the propagation direction of the original beam. In most situations, the scattered light is only partially polarized because of multiple scattering. The best known example of polarization is by scattering of the light of the north sky. The percentage polarization can be quite high in clean country air. The late A. H. Pfund invented a technique for using

measurements of sky polarization to determine the position of the sun when it is below the horizon. See SCATTERING (ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION).

**Types of polarized light.** Polarized light is classified according to the orientation of the electric vector. In linearly polarized light, the electric vector remains in a plane containing the propagation direction. For monochromatic light, the amplitude of the vector changes sinusoidally with time. In circularly polarized light, the tip of the electric vector describes a circular helix about the propagation direction. The amplitude of the vector is constant. The frequency of rotation is equal to the frequency of the light. In elliptically polarized light, the vector also rotates about the propagation direction, but the amplitude of the vector changes so that the projection of the vector on a plane at right angles to the propagation direction describes an ellipse.

These different types of polarized light can all be broken down into two linear components at right angles to each other.

$$E = A \sin(\omega t + \varphi) \quad (6)$$

$$E_y = A_y \sin(\omega t + \varphi_y) \quad (7)$$

where  $A$  and  $A_y$  are the amplitudes  $\varphi$  and  $\varphi_y$  the phases,  $\omega$  is  $2\pi$  times the frequency, and  $t$  is the time. For linearly polarized light

$$\varphi = \varphi_y, \quad A \neq A_y$$

For circularly polarized light

$$\varphi = \varphi_y \pm \frac{\pi}{2}, \quad A = A_y$$

For elliptically polarized light

$$\varphi \neq \varphi_y, \quad A \neq A_y$$

In the last case, it is always possible to find a set of orthogonal axes inclined at an angle  $\alpha$  to  $x$  and  $y$  along which the components will be  $E$  and  $E_y$  such that

$$\varphi = \varphi_y \pm \frac{\pi}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad A \neq A_y$$

In this new system, the  $x'$  and  $y'$  amplitudes will be the major and minor axes  $a$  and  $b$  of the ellipse described by the light vector, and  $\alpha$  will be the angle of orientation of the ellipse axis with respect to the original coordinate system. The relationship between the different quantities can be written

$$\begin{aligned} \tan 2\alpha &= \tan 2\gamma \cot \varphi & (9) \\ \sin 2\beta &= \sin 2\gamma \sin \varphi & (9) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\tan \gamma = A/A_y \quad (10)$$

$$\varphi = \varphi_y - \varphi' \quad (11)$$

$$\tan \beta = \pm t/a \quad (12)$$

$$A + A_y = a + b \quad (13)$$

The same types of polarized light can all be broken down into right and left circular components or into two orthogonal elliptical components.

The different bases are of linearly different polarization states

**Production of polarized light** Linear polarizers have already been discussed. Circularly polarized light can be produced by combining a linear polarizer with a wave plate. A Fresnel rhomb is used to produce circularly polarized light.

**Wave plate** A plate of material which is anisotropic in its refractive index, such as calcite or quartz, is called a wave plate or retarder. Wave plates have a pair of orthogonal axes: the fast and slow axes. The fast axis is the direction in which light travels fastest, and the slow axis is the direction in which it travels slowest.

The thickness of the material can be chosen so that the light emerging from the plate has a certain phase shift between the fast and slow components. This is called the phase shift. A plate with a  $90^\circ$  phase shift is termed a quarter wave plate. The retardation is given by the equation

$$\delta = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} d \quad (14)$$

where  $\delta$  is the phase shift,  $\lambda$  is the wavelength, and  $d$  is the thickness of the plate.

is the wavelength  $\lambda$ ,  $n$  is the refractive index, and  $d$  is the plate thickness.

Wave plates can be made by preparing X-cut sections of quartz or calcite. Other birefringent crystals like mica and selenite can also be used. For retardations of less than a few wavelengths, a sheet of oriented plastic or film can be used. A quartz wave plate for the visible spectrum is easy to fabricate from mica. The plastic wraps from many American cigarette packages cement the mica sheets together. A half-wave retardation of green light. Selenite is not transparent in the ultraviolet, a small retardation in this region is most easily achieved by cutting quartz plates which differ by the requisite thickness.

Linearly polarized light incident normally on a quarter-wave plate and is rotated at  $45^\circ$  to the fast axis is a beam split into two equal components parallel to the fast and slow axes. These can be represented by the equations

$$E = A \cos(\omega t + \varphi) \quad (15)$$

$$E = A \sin(\omega t + \varphi) \quad (16)$$

where  $x$  and  $y$  are parallel to the wave plate axes.

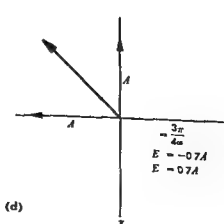
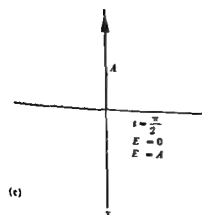
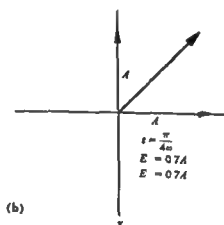
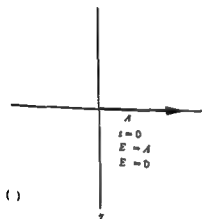


Fig. 4. Polarized light. (a)  $t=0$ ,  $E=A$ . (b)  $t=\pi/4\omega$ ,  $E=0.7A$ . (c)  $t=\pi/2\omega$ ,  $E=0$ . (d)  $t=3\pi/4\omega$ ,  $E=-0.7A$ .

After passing through the plate the two components can be written

$$E = A \sin \left( \omega t + \varphi + \frac{\pi}{2} \right) \quad (17)$$

$$E = A \sin (\omega t + \varphi) \quad (18)$$

where  $E$  is now advanced one quarter wave with respect to  $E$

One can visualize the behavior of the light by studying the sketches in Fig. 4 which show the projection on a plane  $= 0$  at various times. It is apparent that the light vector is of constant amplitude and that the projection on a plane normal to the propagation direction is a circle. If the linearly polarized light is oriented at  $-45^\circ$  to the fast axis the light vector will revolve in the opposite direction. Thus it is possible with a quarter wave plate and a linear polarizer to make either right or left circularly polarized light. If the linearly polarized light is at an angle other than  $45^\circ$  to the fast axis the transmitted radiation will be elliptically polarized. When circularly polarized light is incident on a quarter wave plate the transmitted light is linearly polarized at an angle of  $45^\circ$  to the wave plate axes. This polarization is independent of the orientation of the wave plate axes. For elliptically polarized light the behavior of the quarter wave plate is much more complicated. However as was mentioned earlier the elliptically polarized light can be considered as composed of two linear components parallel to the major and minor axes of the ellipse and with a quarter wave phase difference between them. If the quarter wave plate is oriented parallel to the axes of the ellipse the two transmitted components will either have zero phase difference or a  $180^\circ$  phase difference and will be linearly polarized. At other angles the transmitted light will still be elliptically polarized but with different major and minor axes. Similar treatment for a half wave plate shows that linearly polarized light oriented at an angle  $\theta$  to the fast axis is transmitted as linearly polarized light oriented at an angle  $-\theta$  to the fast axis.

Wave plate also give a different retardation at each wavelength. This appears immediately from Eq. (14). It is conceivable that a substance could have dispersion of birefringence such as to make the retardation of a plate independent of wave length. Such material has not yet been found.

**Fresnel rhomb.** A quarter wave retardation can be produced achromatically by the Fresnel rhomb. This device depends on the phase shift which occurs at total internal reflection. When linearly polarized light is totally internally reflected it experiences a phase shift which depends on the angle of reflection, the refractive index of the material, and the orientation of the plane of polarization. Light polarized in the plane of incidence experiences a phase shift which is different from that of light polarized at right angle to the plane of incidence. Light polarized at an intermediate angle can be split into two components parallel and at right angle to the plane of incidence and the two components mathematically combined after reflection.

The phase shifts can be written

$$\tan \frac{\varphi_1}{2} = \frac{n \sqrt{n^2 \sin^2 i - 1}}{\cos i} \quad (19)$$

$$\tan \frac{\varphi_2}{2} = \frac{\sqrt{n^2 \sin^2 i - 1}}{n \cos i} \quad (20)$$

where  $\varphi_1$  is the phase shift parallel to the plane of incidence,  $\varphi_2$  is the phase shift at right angles to the plane of incidence,  $i$  is the angle of incidence on the totally reflecting internal surface and  $n$  is the refractive index. The difference  $\varphi_1 - \varphi_2$  reaches a value of about  $-\pi/4$  at an angle of  $52^\circ$  for  $n = 1.50$ . Two such reflections give a retardation of  $-\pi/2$ . The Fresnel rhomb shown in Fig. 5 is cut so that the incident light is reflected twice at  $52^\circ$ . Accordingly light polarized at  $45^\circ$  to the principal plane will be split into two equal components which will be shifted a quarter wave with respect to each other and the transmitted light will be circularly polarized. Nearly achromatic wave plate can be made by using a series of wave plates in series with their axes oriented at different specific angles with respect to a coordinate system.

**Analyzing devices.** Polarized light is one of the most useful tools for studying the characteristics of material. The absorption constant and refractive index of a metal can be calculated by measuring the effect of the metal on polarized light reflected from its surface. See REFLECTION (ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION).

The analysis of polarized light can be performed with a variety of different devices. If the light is linearly polarized it can be extinguished by a linear polarizer and the direction of polarization of the light determined directly from the orientation of the polarizer. If the light is elliptically polarized it can be analyzed with the combination of a quarter wave plate and a linear polarizer. An such combination of polarizer and analyzer is called a polariscope. As explained previously a quarter wave plate oriented parallel to one of the axes of the ellipse will transform elliptically polarized light to linearly polarized light. Accordingly the quarter wave plate is rotated until the beam is extinguished by the linear polarizer. At this point the orientation of the quarter wave plate gives the orientation of the ellipse and the orientation of the

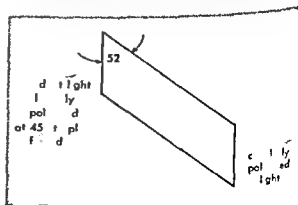


Fig. 5. Fresnel rhomb.

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$$E = A \ln(1 + \varphi) \quad (21)$$



3 An optical system containing any number of retardation plates partial polarizers and rotators is optically equivalent to a system containing four elements—two retardation plate one partial polarizer and one rotator

As an example of the power of the calculus a rather specific theorem can be proved A rotator of any given angle  $\alpha$  can be formed by a sequence of three retardation plates a quarter wave plate a retardation plate at 45 to the quarter wave plate and a second quarter wave plate crossed with the first

$$S(\alpha) = S(\beta)G\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right)S(-\beta)S\left(\beta + \frac{\pi}{4}\right)G(\delta)S\left(-\beta - \frac{\pi}{4}\right)S(\beta)G\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)S(-\beta) \quad (38)$$

where  $\beta$  is the angle between the axis of the first quarter wave plate and the  $x$  axis and  $\delta$  is the retardation of the plate in the middle of the sandwich

The first simplification arises from the fact that the axis rotations can be done in any order

$$S\left(\beta + \frac{\pi}{4}\right) = S(\beta)S\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) = S\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right)S(\beta) \quad (39)$$

This reduces the equation to

$$S(\alpha) = S(\beta)G\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right)S\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right)G(\delta)S\left(-\frac{\pi}{4}\right)G\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)S(-\beta) \quad (40)$$

$$\text{Now } S\left(-\frac{\pi}{4}\right)G\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -i \\ -i & 1 \end{vmatrix} \quad (41)$$

$$\text{and } G\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right)S\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & i \\ i & 1 \end{vmatrix} \quad (42)$$

When the multiplication is carried through

$$S(\alpha) = S(\beta) \left[ \frac{1}{2} \begin{vmatrix} e^{i\delta/2} + e^{-i\delta/2} & -ie^{i\delta/2} + ie^{-i\delta/2} \\ ie^{i\delta/2} - ie^{-i\delta/2} & e^{i\delta/2} + e^{-i\delta/2} \end{vmatrix} S(-\beta) \right] \quad (43)$$

$$= S(\beta)S\left(\frac{\delta}{2}\right)S(-\beta) = S\left(\frac{\delta}{2}\right) \quad (44)$$

The rotation angle is therefore equal to one half the phase angle of the retardation This combination is a true rotator in that the rotation is independent of the azimuth angle of the incident polarized light

A variable rotator can be made by using a Soleil compensator for the central element This consists of two quartz wedges joined to form a plane parallel plate The lower wedge is cemented to a plane parallel quartz plate

**Mueller matrices** In the Jones calculus the intensity of the light passing through the system must be obtained by calculation from the components of the light vector A second calculus is frequently used in which the light vector is split into four components This also uses matrix operator which are termed Mueller matrices In this calculus the intensity  $I$  of the light is one component of the vector and thus is automatically calculated

The other components of the vector are

$$M = A - A^2 \quad (45)$$

$$C = 2A \cos(\psi - \psi_0) \quad (46)$$

$$S = 2A \sin(\psi - \psi_0) \quad (47)$$

The matrix of a perfect polarizer parallel to the  $x$  axis can be written

$$P = \frac{1}{2} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \quad (48)$$

This calculus can treat unpolarized light directly Such a light vector is given by the expression

$$\begin{vmatrix} I \\ M \\ C \\ S \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{vmatrix} \quad (49)$$

The vector for light polarized parallel to the  $x$  axis is written

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{vmatrix} \quad (50)$$

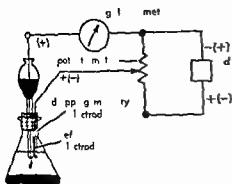
In the same manner as in the Jones calculus matrices can be derived for retardation plates rotators and partial polarizers This calculus can also be used to derive various general theorems about various optical systems See FARADAY EFFECT INTERFERENCE OF WAVES OPTICAL ACTIVITY ROTATORY DISPERSION [BORN]

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## Polarographic analysis

An electrochemical technique used in analytical chemistry Polarography is one of a group of techniques which are broadly classified as voltammetric The common feature of the techniques is that they all involve observation of current potential time relationships at electrodes immersed in electrolytic solutions The technique can be applied to any ionic or molecular species that is oxidizable or reducible in electrolysis within certain limits of potential Most metals and some organic functional groups such as aldehyde ketone amino and mercaptan may be determined by polarography

In conventional polarography the current through the electrolytic cell is measured as a function of the applied potential At sufficiently anodic (oxidizing) potentials no current is observed in the case of a reducible substance As the potential becomes more cathodic appreciable reduction occurs and the current rises in approximately exponential fashion Ultimately a potential is reached at which reduction occurs rapidly



P l g ph

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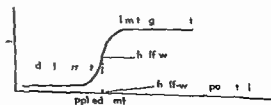
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f t h e s p e c i e t t h e e l c t r d e s u r f a c e

**Applications** T h e l i m i t a t i o n s o f the p o t e n t i a l  
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a n d c d b y o x i d a t i o n o f the e o r o f the e l e c t r d m a t e r i a l

The m e t h d h a b e e u e d f r the d e t e r m a t i o n  
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a d p o t a s i u m a n d f o r t h e d e t e r m i n a t i o n f a s i u s  
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k e t n e h l o e n d u b l e a n d t r i p l e b o n d n i t o  
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a n d m a n y o t h e r s B e a u s m e r c u r y o n e a c t w i t h  
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t h i o c y a n a t e c y a n d e a n d u l f i d e a m g o t h e  
O x y g e n a l d u e d a t the DME A l t h g h t h s  
f r m the b a i s f o a c o n v n e n t v y g e d e t e r m i a t  
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the c a t t e t s m s t b e p u g e d o f o x y g e n

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**Other polarographic techniques** V a r i o u s e l e c t  
t e s t e s t h a t the DME h e b e n u e d i n c l u d  
i n g d o p p g t a t g v i b a t i n g r s t a t o a r v  
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g a l l u m g p h i t e m r u r y r m r c u y a m a l a m  
p l s r t a t n a r y d r p a n d m e r y p l t e d p l t  
i m d g o l d A l t h g h o l d e l c t d e h e t h e  
d d a t a g e f g i n g r r a t e s u l t t h e y n b e  
e d a t m h m r e n o d p e t e t i a l s t h m e r c u r y  
i n a d d i t i o n t t h e n t n a l p o t e t i l c n  
m e t h d o t h e t h n i q u e s h a e d m the s a m e p r n  
p l e h e b n p p l i d n s p a l s i t u a t i o n S o  
l l e d l l g r a p h y p l o g r a p h y n w h h a l t e  
a t i u e n t ( ) p e t e t i l s a p p l i d t the  
e l c t d w h i c h c n v e t n a l p e t e t i l c n  
p e f m d n l m l l e c n d l s s i s p a r t i c u l a r l y  
u s e f l w h r h i g h t e t i t y d e s i r d o w h e m  
t h k i t f f t e t o s a t u d d C o n e n  
t l c a n s w h i c h m l l ( a f e w m i l l o l t s )  
n d i r s q u e r w a e p e t e t a l u p e i m  
p e d the d e t c u r r e n t ( d c ) p t n t a l a d the



P l g p h c r v

ac component of the resulting current is measured give curves which are essentially derivatives of the normal polarographic wave. The same techniques are valuable in the study of multicomponent mixtures where the waves of the separate components are not sufficiently separated for conventional analysis. Inverse methods in which species are plated into mercury or onto the surfaces of solid electrodes and their dissolution currents measured have been applied to analysis of solutions as dilute as one part per 10<sup>4</sup> parts of solution.

Many of these techniques are also useful for following the course of titrations. With a constant potential applied the amperometric titration curve of current as a function of titrant added takes the form of two straight line segments with their intersection at the stoichiometric point.

**Other voltammetric methods.** There are other voltammetric techniques in which current is controlled and potential is measured. If a linearly changing current is applied to a DME or rotated solid electrode a curve of the same form as a conventional polarogram is obtained. This is current-concentration polarography. A technique which has been known since 1878 but only assumed importance in the 1950 is chronopotentiometry. In this technique a constant current is applied to a stationary electrode in an stirred solution and the potential is measured as a function of time. The time at which a large potential break is observed is termed the transition time and its square root is proportional to the concentration of the reacting species. If the data are plotted as square root of time versus potential the resulting curve is of the same form as a conventional polarogram. See OVERVOLTAGE TITRATION AMPEROMETRIC [W.H.R.]

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## Poliomyelitis

An acute infectious viral disease which in its serious form affects the central nervous system and by destruction of motor neurons in the spinal cord produces flaccid paralysis. However, about 99% of infections are either inapparent or very mild. See CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM.

**Infectious agent.** Polioviruses are no longer considered strictly neurotropic because (1) they will multiply in cultures of many nonnervous tissues, (2) viremia and antibody formation appear before the paralytic phase is reached and in cases where even transient signs of central nervous system involvement do not occur, (3) the virus is regularly found in the throat and stools before the onset of disease and after onset it is found for a week in the throat and for several weeks in the stools. The infectious virus particle is about 28 mμ in diameter. Freezing preserves it for long periods. In contrast to the arbovirus it is destroyed only slowly by alcohol and not at all by ether and leoxythol. Poliovirus has a very restricted host range; most strains are limited in host primates and in vitro to primate tissue culture, monkey kidney cells are widely used. Three antigenic types (polio-

rus are known but most clinical cases are due to Type 1. See ANIMAL VIRUS, ARBOVIRAL ENCEPHALITIDES.

**Pathogenesis.** The virus probably enters the body through the mouth; primary multiplication occurs in the throat and intestine. Transitory viremia occurs; the blood seems to be the most likely route to the central nervous system. The events of the infection may range from a completely inapparent through minor influenzalike illness to an aseptic meningitis syndrome (nonparalytic poliomyelitis) with stiff and painful back and neck to the severe forms of paralytic and bulbar poliomyelitis. In all clinical types virus is regularly present in the enteric tract. In paralytic poliomyelitis the usual course begins as a minor illness but progresses sometimes with an intervening recrudescence of symptoms (hence biphasic) to flaccid paralysis of varying degree and persistence. When the motor neurons affected are those of the diaphragm or of the intercostal muscles respiratory paralysis occurs. Bulbar poliomyelitis results from viral attack on the medulla (bulb of the brain) or higher brain centers with respiratory and motor facial palatal or pharyngeal disturbances.

**Diagnosis.** Laboratory diagnosis is by isolation usually from stools inoculated into tissue culture and subsequent identification by neutralization with specific antisera in vitro and by complement fixing and neutralizing serum antibody reactions. Isolation of a virus which is cytopathogenic in tissue cultures is not sufficient for diagnosis (for many other cytopathogenic enteroviruses also inhabit the enteric tract and produce syndromes similar to mild or early poliomyelitis). See CULTURE, EMBRYONATED EGG, CULTURE, TISSUE, NEUTRALIZING ANTIBODY.

**Epidemiology.** Poliomyelitis occurs throughout the world. In temperate zones it appears chiefly in summer and fall although winter outbreaks have been known. It occurs in all age groups but less frequently in adults because of their acquired immunity. In crowded underdeveloped areas and in tropical countries where conditions favor a constant wide spread dissemination of virus poliomyelitis continues to be a disease of infancy and a high percentage of children over 4 years old are already immune. During recent decades in some areas of the temperate zone the age incidence has tended to change in marked parallel with improving sanitation and hygiene exposures postponed sometime so long that parents may be without immunity and susceptible to infection transmitted to them from their children.

The virus is spread by human contact; the nature of the contact is not clear but it appears to be associated with familial contact and with interpersonal contact among young children. The virus may be present in the

**Vaccine.** Salk vaccine (formally killed) prepared from virus grown in monkey kidney cells has been widely used. It is not known whether it is protective against infection transmitted by the oral route.

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### Polishing

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 p o l h g m f i n e s m y b e e i t h b n e h o f l o o  
 m n t d U u l l y t h e y a e i t h t y p e m h s s  
 t h w h e l a t t h d o f a p w p n d l e m  
 n e d m j d n a b i e b e l t a o u t y p s  
 f e m t m t e p l t m a h e e u d f  
 q u n t y p d i o n T h e e d e e d t m o  
 t h w k p t h g h t h e u g p a l f o  
 m t p o l i n g h l s S G r n d i n c

F m r l k f a a p e m b r d g  
 p o r e s l l d p e f i n h i d S p e f i n h  
 g r m e s m i f l a w s o q u a l i t W h l e t  
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The u p e f i n g p e a t p f m d w i t h  
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 f a t h w k p t t h s t n r s t  
 o u t h k u d s f l o o d f i l b r i n T h e  
 p e u a l l y p f m d m m t r i a l  
 p r o c s L p p i M a c h i n e o p e r a t i o n s

### Pollucite

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 h t e r t e l l t a m r l  
 i n d a p r e m a l t a c c o t a t e d w i t h p o d

I p d o l t e u c r y p t t e p e t a l t e a d e i m b e r y  
 I t h a b e n f o u n d i n l a r g e m e a t t h e V a u  
 t r a k p e m a t t i n S w e d e n I t h U n i t e d S t a t  
 i t w a t n e t i m e w o r k d a s a o r o f c e s u m a t  
 N e w r y M a i n e a n d i n t h e B l c k H i l l f S t h  
 D a k o t a S e S i l i c a t e M i n e r a l s [C S H V]

### Polonium

E l e m n t n u m b e r 84 y m l o f P m e m b e r o f g o u p  
 V I b f i t h p e o d c t a b l e P o l m m (P ) w a s  
 d m r e d b y M a m C r e (1898) i n p u t c h l e n d e  
 a n d n a m e d a f t e r h e n t e e n t r y P l a n d T h i  
 t o p e a l o k w n a s r d u m F m t h e p u l t m t  
 m m b e r o f t h e r a d i u m d e c y e r i e p u t c h l e d  
 o t a n 0.1 m / t o n A l l p o l o n i u m t o p e a e  
 a d a c t e n d a l l a r e s h o r t l i v e d e x c e p t t h t r e  
 a m m t e r s I (29 y e a ) P (100 y r s)  
 b t h o f w h c h a e p r d e e d b y b o m b r d n g b u m t h

w i t h d e t e n s a d n a t u r a l P (1384 d a y )  
 n w p r o d e d i n m i l l r a m a m u t b y t h e n e u  
 t n b m t r d m n t o f b m u t h P o l n m s e p a  
 t d f m b i m u t h b y p o n t e o u d e p s t o n t  
 a i n b l e m t a l u h a s i l f l l w e d b v a  
 v a u m u b l i m t i o o r h m l p r a t n o f t h e  
 d p t

U s e s P l u m (P o ) s s e d m i n l y f t h e  
 p o d t o n f n t r n o u e f t h e e t h e p o l o n i u m  
 m a l l y e d w i t h e l e m e t c h s b r y l l i u m  
 h c h h a s t p e s f h g h a n r o s e c t I t  
 l b e d i t t l i m a t o a n d w h  
 o p a t d i n t h l e t o d e a l l y o f p a k p l g  
 d t i m p o t h l d a t i n g p o p e r t s f  
 n t l c m b t n g n s

P r o p e r t i e s M t f t h e h m t r y o f p o l o n i u m  
 h b e n d e t m e d ; P l m f w h h  
 w g h 7222 p g w k w i t h w h b l a m n t s  
 d l f e h a z a d n d q r e p c i l t e h  
 n q e

P l m a m m e t l l e t h i t s l o w e h o m o l o g i c a l l u m t w a l l t p e k w n a P o ( i m p l e b ) d b P o f m p l h m b o h e d r l ) w i t h t h e p h e c h a g a -> b a t a b o t 36 C. The metal is h m lly m l to t l l m f m n g t h b i g h t r e d e m p d S P O n d S P O a n m b c f p o l n d r e k w n T h e m t a l i o f t d i s p h l p r p t e s m b l t h e o f t h a l l m l e a d n d b m t h t l e ( 2 a d 4 l l e s t a b l h f n d t h e m e d f h a l P l o n i u m l e s b r w e l a d t e l l u m n t h l e e t o r b m a l

**Compounds** Two forms of the dioxide are known low temperature yellow face centered cubic (UO type) and high temperature red tetragonal. It is formed from the element at 250 C and decomposes at 500 C under vacuum. The black monoxide may be formed in the spontaneous decomposition of  $\text{SPoO}_3$  and  $\text{SePoO}_3$ . The quadrivalent hydroxide (pale yellow gelatinous feebly amphoteric) is precipitated from solutions of polonium salts by alkalis. It is reduced to the metal in alkaline suspension by hydroxylamine, hydrazine, sodium dithionite and ammonia (liquid or concentrated aqueous solution). The last two reactions may be due to  $\alpha$  radiation effect. The brown bivalent hydroxide is readily oxidized. Polonium monosulfide (black) is precipitated from acid solutions of polonium salts by hydrogen sulfide (solubility product  $5.5 \times 10^{-2}$ ); it decomposes to the elements at 275 C and 10  $\mu$  pressure a property utilized in the preparation of pure polonium metal.

The halides are covalent volatile compounds resembling their tellurium analogs ( $\text{PoCl}_2$  yellow,  $\text{PoBr}_2$  carmine,  $\text{PoI}_2$  black,  $\text{PoCl}_3$  ruby red,  $\text{PoBr}_3$  purple brown,  $\text{PoI}_3$  salmon pink) with the bivalent state more stable than the quadrivalent; the latter gives rise to face centered cubic complex salts  $\text{M}_2\text{PoX}_6$  ( $\text{X} = \text{Cl}$  yellow,  $\text{Br}$  brick red,  $\text{I}$  black) where M is a univalent cation. The cesium salts are the least soluble. The quadrivalent halide in solution are reduced to the bivalent state (pink) by hydrazine, sulfur dioxide or arsenic(III) oxide (on warming) and to the metal by tin(II) chloride, sodium dithionite or titanium(III) chloride. Complexes with organic molecules (for example triethyl phosphate, dithione ethylenediaminetetraacetate, nitroly chloride and ammonia) are also known.

The increased metallic character of polonium as compared to tellurium is shown in the formation of the salts  $\text{Po}(\text{SO}_3)_2$  (white hydrated deep purple anhydrous) and  $\text{Po}(\text{NO}_3)_4$  (white). Both are readily hydrolyzed; the former to  $2\text{PoO} \cdot \text{SO}_3$  (white when cold and yellow when hot); the latter to a series of diaxonitrates which may be polymeric. The basic salts  $2\text{PoO} \cdot \text{SeO}$  and  $2\text{PoO} \cdot \text{CrO}$  are also known; they are analogous to tellurium sulfates  $2\text{TeO} \cdot \text{SO}_3$ . There is some evidence for a normal chromate (yellow  $\text{Po}(\text{CrO}_4)_2$ ) and a hexavalent polonium/chromium complex acid. The acetate, cyanide, date, oxalate and phosphate (all white) have been prepared and there is evidence for the formation of a vanadate and tartrate.

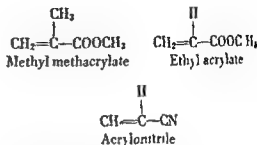
**Determination** Polonium ( $\text{Po}$ ) is estimated by its emission either by direct counting or calorimetrically; in the latter case the measurement depends on the heat liberated by the stoppage of the disintegration  $\alpha$  particles within the sample. See NUCLEAR REACTION. RADIOACTIVITY. TELLURIUM.

**Bibliography** K. W. Bagnall, *Chemistry of the Rare Radioelements* 1954; K. W. Bagnall et al., *The International Chemistry Project*, Atomic Energy Research Establishment (Great Britain) C/R 460 1948.

H. V. Moyer, *Polonium*, U.S. Atomic Energy Commission TID 5221 1956.

## Polyacrylate resin

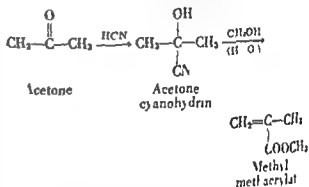
Useful polymers can be obtained from a variety of acrylic monomers such as acrylic and methacrylic acid, their salt esters and amide and the corresponding nitriles. The most important monomers are



Polymethyl methacrylate, ethyl acrylate and a few other derivatives are discussed below. See POLYACRYLONITRILE RESIN.

Polymethyl methacrylate is distinguished as a hard transparent polymer with high optical clarity, high refractive index and good resistance to light and aging. It and its copolymers are useful for lenses, signs, indirect lighting fixture, transparent domes and skylights, denture and protective coatings.

The monomer may be prepared by the dehydration and methanolysis of acetone cyanohydrin.



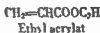
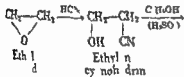
Polymerization may be initiated by free radical catalysts such as peroxide or by organometallic compounds such as butyllithium. The free-radical polymerization can be carried out in bulk in solution and in aqueous emulsion or suspension. Although solution polymerization is not commercially used, bulk polymerization is frequently employed in various casting operations in the formation of sheets, rods and tubes in the mounting of electrical textile and metallurgical test specimens and in dental applications. At 200 C polymerization of acrylonitrile can be initiated by free radicals. The polymer thus obtained is difficult to prepare articles that predetermine dimensions by the cast polymerization technique. The product is largely minimized by using a group of polymer isolated in monomer or a dough of finely divided polymer dispersed in a relatively small amount of monomer.

M l d g p d r u bl f r th nje t on mold  
ing of d al o name tal frtu e and l nes m y  
be p p d from the g anule pr du ed by aque  
o pen n p l m r ats n o from the pr duct  
of bulk polym izat

Sol : n f p lymethyl metha rylate and t  
polym r ar u efu la q e s Aqueous latexe  
f rmed by th emul i n polym r i t n of methyl  
m thac rylat with othe m n me r sef l a  
t b ed p mts nd i th tre tng f t et le  
dl t l r

P l thyl a rylat i a to h omewh at r bbery  
p d ct The m m r us d m nly as the plas  
t i z g r often g i r d e n t i cop lymer Th  
rel t ely h d r l th ry polym ss of methyl  
m thac rylate i yl etate yl chl or d an  
b made soft r by n rp at n of m d e r at  
m i s of ethyl a ryl te n the i al p lymer i  
m

Ethyl a ryl t m s be pr du ed by the d hydra  
t n and eth ol s of ethylene a ohydrin wh ch  
can be obt ed f methyl e oxide



Th m n m r l p od d by th r a t s of  
s ethyl e r b n m n vid a d ethyl alc h l n  
t pre ce of k i a b y l

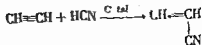
Polym zati may be ff et d by cat ly t s f  
th f e a d l type Copolym at with  
th m o m r a e f equ tly ied out in aq e  
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s r t h g The b ryl nd i ) i f a l  
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s e a m p m t b th th fl w g p l  
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L n TRALE IL STICS r CATION POYMERIZA  
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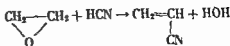
{ 3 i L s t n }

### Polyacrylonitrile resin

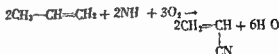
f h rd h rny l t ly i bl and h gh m l t  
ing m t l P h a r i t i (p lyv yl y d l  
t d l m t e n t i ly i n l y m The e poly  
mer { 3 } t h e e g up f i b r plat a d  
r b b e Th p r e f c ryl t i l a p l v  
m e r m p o i s d t i t s r e t  
t temper t i h m l m p t a d f l g  
A ryl t i ) g a e r l l b p r e d by e f the  
f l l i g m thod  
(1) Cat lyzed add i f h yd r g n y a n d e t  
e t l n



(2) Re ct on between hydrogen cyanide and  
ethylene x de



(3) R a t i o n betwe n ammon a and pr pylene



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c l ataly t s such as peroxid s by i radi t i r  
by the u f alk al metal at ly s Alth ugh poly  
mer at n n bulk pr ceed t o rap dly t b e c m  
me ally sea ble atst ct ry co tr l f a p ly  
me zati n c p lym r at n may b h eed in  
uspens n and n emul i n nd in aq eous olu  
tions f om wh ch th polyne p e c p it te C p ly  
me t a n g a ryl t r i l e m y be fabric ted by  
th u u al m thods f h a d l i n g the n pla t i s r e s  
n s

The maj r f a ryl nitril i n the f r m of  
fib Th h h tre gth h gh s t e n tempera  
tur e i t a e t g i chem al wate a d  
cl n n l e n t a d the f t wooll ke f l of  
fab cs ha e m de the product p ula f r m y  
ues uch as a f c r d g b l n k e t s a d rous  
type of loth g C m m e r c l f r m f the f b e  
g b bly r e c p lym e c t a n g m i a m u n t s  
of othe nyl d e r i t i e such v l p y r i l l  
d v nyl c tate yl chl o acetate c r l a  
m d o th r The m m r ar in l ded to  
pr d ce p e c i f i c t uch a imp em nt of  
dye g g al t e s

Ext e v i m d f polymers of a rylon  
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wh h o t n 15-40 c ryl n trile M o r a m o n t  
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wh h y l d a b y l g r up on hyd ly i s m a b  
n p o r a t e d t m p the r i g p o p r t i The  
B N rubber ha i t a e t o h y d r a b o n o l  
t u h a s g a o l i n a d s t a n c e t b a n  
nd m m s e b o w h u g h f e b i l t y t l w t m  
p t u e s

I r t y e b l e d f y l p l y m n h s  
p l y t y e c polyv nyl chl or d with m l l to  
m d e at m o u n t of c ryl n tr i l r w th n a r y  
l o t r l e b t d e n opolym h v e r p r n t d  
g f i a t d a c e i p o l m r t h n o l g s The  
i d u t a m i n e the h d s o f the v y l p l y m r  
a d the imp t t a c of th b b e r y compo  
n i s m i f the m y a p p l e t n s a m o l d  
i g m p o u n d a f r p r d u t p o e s g h g h w  
p t e t a u h a s p p e n d a h t s f  
t t l u e h a n d t l d u t s r f g e r  
t o r i n d th p e d e d e i e S ACRYLO i

**Compounds** Two forms of the dioxide are known: low temperature yellow face centered cubic (UO type) and high temperature red tetragonal. It is formed from the elements at 250°C and decomposes at 500°C under vacuum. The black monoxide may be formed in the spontaneous decomposition of  $\text{SPO}_3$  and  $\text{SePO}_3$ . The quadrivalent hydroxide (pale yellow gelatinous feebly amphoteric) is precipitated from solutions of polonium salts by alkalis; it is reduced to the metal in alkaline solution by hydroxylamine, hydrazine, sodium dithionite, and ammonia (liquid or concentrated aqueous solution). The last two reactions may be due to  $\alpha$  radiation effects. The brown bivalent hydroxide is readily oxidized. Polonium monosulfide (black) is precipitated from acid solutions of polonium salts by hydrogen sulfide (solubility product  $5.5 \times 10^{-10}$ ); it decomposes to the elements at 275°C and 10  $\mu$  pressure; a property utilized in the preparation of pure polonium metal.

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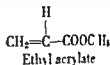
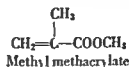
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**Bibliography** K. W. Bagnall, *Chemistry of the Rare Radioelements*, 1944; K. W. Bagnall et al., *The Polonium Chemistry Project*, Atomic Energy Research Establishment (Gt. Brit.), C/R 256, 1948.

II V Moyer *Polonium* U.S. Atomic Energy Commission TID 5221, 1956.

## Polyacrylate resin

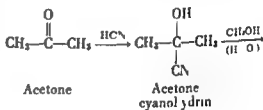
Useful polymers can be obtained from a variety of acrylic monomers such as acrylic and methacrylic acid, their salts, esters, and amides, and the corresponding nitrile. The most important monomers are



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The monomer may be prepared by the dehydration and methanolysis of acetone cyanohydrin:



Polymerization may be initiated by free-radical catalysts such as peroxide or organic metallic compounds such as butyllithium. The free-radical polymerization can be carried out in bulk in solution and in aqueous emulsion or suspension. Although butyllithium polymerization is not commercially used, bulk polymerization is frequently employed in various casting operations and in the formation of sheets and tubes in the manufacturing of large textile and metallurgical test specimens and in dental applications. At 20°C, the reaction is very slow; to obtain a commercial film, the monomer must be polymerized at higher temperatures. The preparation of the polymer is difficult; it is prepared by the precipitation of the polymer from a solution in a large amount of water, followed by filtration and drying. The product is a group of polymers of different molecular weights, or a distribution of finely divided polymer particles in a relatively small amount of monomer.

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 d d h e d l d i e p d p h  
 l c r f r m l t S PLASTICS FABRICA  
 TIO POLY IERIZATION [J A L M H]

# Polychaeta

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 P l b l d w m E Glyc  
 C l m w m h t h N  
 S d m m h p h t y  
 M d l l t o r m P l d  
 F t h d t r w m S b l l S p l  
 C l j n m P t  
 C o n e b e r r y m S t p s r  
 R f b l d e m S b e l l r i a

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 S e p h l m g h d x p d d C r y p t o-  
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 Err t i a

Scale w m d all i e d f a m l

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 P a e u l e p i d  
 C h y o p e t l d m  
 P l m y r d  
 P n d e

F i e w m a n d a l l d f m l s

A m p l i o m i d a e  
 E p l d e  
 S p t h d

Leaf worm d l l d p e l c f a m l i

P h y l l o d o d  
 L o p d h y c h i d a  
 l o s p i l d  
 P t o d o r d  
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 A l p d  
 T y p i l c l d e  
 T m p t d e ( G y m n o c o p )  
 H d  
 P l d  
 S y l l d e  
 N d  
 N e p h t d e  
 S p h d d e  
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 L t d  
 D r v l l d

P a t f m l  
 H t s b d l l d  
 I h t t m d  
 M y t m d  
 M t m d  
 P t m t m d  
 M m t m d  
 S t l h p d

S d t

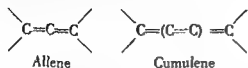
O b d  
 P d  
 A p t b h d  
 A t d w t h p f l g p l p  
 S p d  
 M g l i d e  
 L o m d  
 H m d  
 C l t p t d  
 F w m  
 C t l d  
 C t d l j



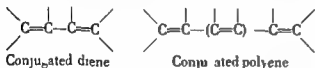
## Polyalkene

One of a class of organic compounds containing two or more ethylenic linkages in the molecule. The compounds are sometimes termed polyene. They exist in accordance with one of the following three systems

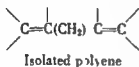
(1) The unsaturated linkages may be directly attached as in allenes or cumulene and are said to possess cumulative unsaturation



(2) The unsaturated linkages may alternate with single linkage in which case the unsaturation is said to be conjugated



(3) The unsaturated linkages may be separated by one or more carbons in which case the unsaturation is said to be isolated



Allene compounds are mainly of interest in studies involving the stereochemistry of organic compounds since it is possible to synthesize optically active compounds which are mirror images of each other. See OPTICAL ACTIVITY

Conjugated diene are the most important group of polyenes since such compounds as butadiene, isoprene and cyclopentadiene are included in this classification. See DIENE

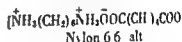
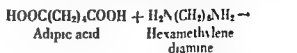
Isolated polyenes include the unsaturated hydrocarbon quinine which contains six isoprene units with six isolated double bonds. It is an aliphatic triterpene and is related to the carotenoid such as lycopene the red coloring matter in tomatoes and carotene provitamin A. See ALIPHATIC TERPENE TRITERPENE [C A C]

## Polyamide resin

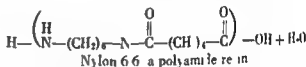
A horny white translucent high melting polymer. Polyamide resin can be essentially transparent and amorphous when their melts are quenched. On annealing or cold drawing they become highly crystalline and translucent. The polymers are used for filter, little bearing gear, milled sheet, coating and adhesive. The term nylon refers specifically to the synthetic polyamides which are capable of forming fiber. See FIBER MANUFACTURE

Brief outlines of the preparation of commercial polyamides by (1) the reaction of dicarboxylic acids with diamine (2) the condensation of amino acids and (3) the reaction of so-called polymerized vegetable oil acids with polyamine are given in this article

Nylon 66 and nylon 610 are products of the condensation reaction of hexamethylene diamine (6 carbon atoms) with adipic acid (6 carbon atoms) and with sebacic acid (10 carbon atoms) respectively. By heating equimolar proportions of the two reactants a polymeric salt is formed



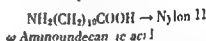
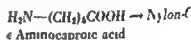
which on further heating yield the polyamide



Because the end group on the polymer can react on further heating as in melt spinning it is desirable to add a very small amount of a mono acid or monoamine to the polymerizing mixture in order to prevent the formation of material of very high molecular weight

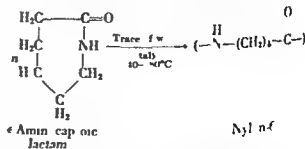
Nylon 66 and nylon 610 are used primarily for fibers however they are also employed in molding composition

Nylon 6 and nylon 11 are obtained by the self condensation of  $\epsilon$ -aminocaproic acid and  $\omega$ -amino undecanoic acid respectively



Each molecule containing both the amino and carboxylic group can condense to yield high polymers by reaction similar to that between the diacids and the diamine

Nylon 6 can also be prepared by the polymerization of the lactam of  $\epsilon$ -aminocaproic acid



Nylon 6 and 11 are used mainly in molding and for the production of machine parts

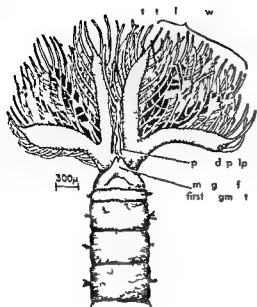


Fig 4 F6 t d t l w h w g  
leath ry w d p d p lp

pe c l m (Fig 5) fa p l d Ch t p m It  
m fu th m f them p t rior egme ta  
r f r m a p f d gath m A  
p r f m l l e l ger p lp (F 4) e typ  
l pe t m l g s a d f t n f d l

Trunk The t k n m y Aphr d t i to  
f a d f i t e n m h f g m e t w h n Eu  
the m l d f i t w h f w 6 o  
m 70 gment Th y m y b e s m l a to  
th t f r m a l w r m l k e b o d r b e  
modified i t p r e l z d e g h a th  
b d r e n o r t i l s t l l b d y e l m e t h v  
p e d e r i f f l e s h l t r a l x p s i f the  
body wall c l l e d p p d a They may be g l  
f m ) r d b l e (b r m u ) i t m f  
d l b a h (not p n d m) and t r a l b c h  
(r u p o d u m) E a h h h a r t t l o b  
o t h r s o f f h y p e e n d a c l g t  
f r m f i n i t e l s i t  
w l c f g b a h (F 3) f l d (F 1)  
p p o d P a p d m y i p e e t a t e d b y  
w e r e d o d l l e d a l a (e t l e m b d d e d)  
b s e t e (m e g t d r t i l) f h a  
i t f r m s e t a e t f p e a l z d  
l l t h n h l a f p a p d They t n  
t d r l p t h u g h t h e l s f t h i d d l  
d a e p l e d q u e d O f t e n t h f m  
m h p l e r d i n m n y s d n t t l m a  
m e t h k f l l d e s f m a h d e d  
i c p l O ) s e t h w t a d n d  
l p m t w o t h i t f r p o l l e t d i s y a  
p l h e r p e f l l f m i g l h a t t  
t p o F m p l e s t l m l p e c t n e f a  
v e l d A z l p h m (F 6 a) d n b i d  
v l (F 7) D m h b u h f i n e  
t m H p o o l k s e t r t a p

n Phyl Th op cul m f Sabella ia is trenght  
ened with p l e h i h d i f f e r u t e r (F g 6 c)  
and m n r (F i g 6 d) r M a n y S e d e n t a r i a h a e  
a u l h o o k o r u n e s p e c i a r t f a m i l y o r g e  
n e r i c g r u p s u c h a s t h e o t e r e b l l i d (F i g 7 a)  
a b e l l d (F g 7 b) and r p i l d (F g 7 )

Setae S t a e m y b e i m p l e (F 6 g) c o m p  
t e (F i g 6 f) T h y m y l e d t a l l y h o d e d (F i g  
6 h) o r t n s s e l y r d e l (F i g 6 ) T h e a r i s  
k i d o f t a e f t i o n n p r o g e i n f r m n t a i n  
n g g i p f o r w m m i n a n g a n s o f d e f e s e o r o f  
f e a e d i n r p r o d u c t s p h e n m e n a I n o m e p e  
l a g p o l y c h a e t e s a e l a k i n g a d p a r p o d i a  
r m d f i d a s p d d l e s a r s l o m e a l  
w o r m t h d o r l e t a e e m o d i f i e d t o f o r m a d r  
a l f l t n d i m e p l y o d n t i d c m p l e x g l  
d l r o g n e c e t e s t h t h r e a d l k e m e s h w h h  
f o r m t h k l y m a t t e d t b e

Alimentary tract The a l m t a r y t t s h o w s  
m n y d e p r t s f o m a m p l y l d r i c a l t b e A n  
a t e d r p r o b o l e r s a b l s a s o f t  
m p l e d d e d p t m a l u n g r i c h l y

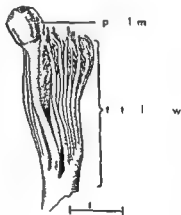


Fig 5 Ch t p m h w g t t l w d  
p c l m



Fig 6 V type f t ( ) P c t f a p h  
r y d A g l p h m (b) P t f l i d N  
( ) P l f S b l l o f m t w d l  
w p l f S b l l ( ) B r u h i k p l m d t  
f m D m U C m p r t f t h y l d E g  
(g) S m p l t a f t h s a b l l d F b (h) A h o d d  
( ) A d g e d e t

## Limivores

Scalibregmidae  
Opheliidae  
Sternopidae  
Capitellidae  
Arenicolidae  
Maldanidae  
Owenidae

## Anterior end with retractile oral tentacles

Flabelligeridae  
Sabellariidae  
Pectinariidae (cone worms)  
Terebellidae  
Trichobranchidae

## Feather duster worms

Sabellidae  
Serpulidae

## MORPHOLOGY

**Head** The head or prothorax may be a simple or secondarily annulated lobe in front of or above the mouth. It may be pushed far back (Fig. 1) or be retractile into one of the first few segments. It may have simple eyespots or complex lenticular eye. Complex eyes are best developed in pelagic polychaetes. Antennae are sensory threadlike structure (Fig. 2a, b) in various arrangements. A caruncle or fleshy sensory organ is characteristic of many Errantia and is sometimes highly developed as in the fireworms *Hermodice* (Fig. 3) and *Amphinome* (Fig. 2a).

**Peristomium** The peristomium or first ring may be a simple mouth ring surrounding the mouth with its ventral part forming the lower lip or it may have setae and be variously modified to form complex structure. Examples are the tentacular crown (Fig. 4) of a sabellid *Fabicia* and the



Fig. 1. Sp. ther. dorsal view showing the small prothorax (ptm) set far back the dorsal area and the first parapodial fold.

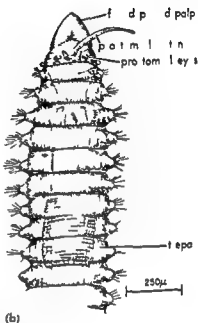
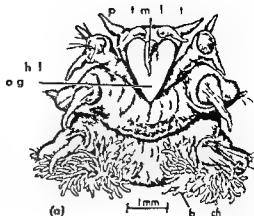


Fig. 2. (a) *Amphinome* anterior end; dorsal view showing the prothorax (ptm) and the first two segments (b) *Eteone* anterior end in dorsal view showing the anterior end of the alimentary tract with the pan.

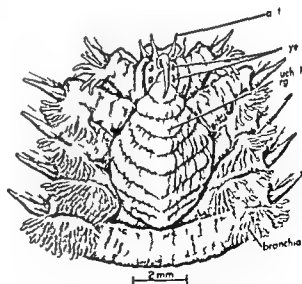


Fig. 3. Fireworm (Hermodice) dorsal view showing the prothorax with four eyes (ey) and the first parapodial fold.

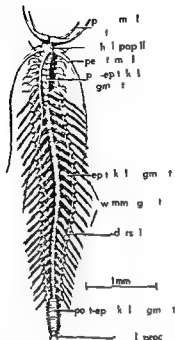


Fig 8 A t y l t m l p h y b t h p t k d n o l w h w g m d f d r g f t h b d y

t f r m n p u l m l m e e t h l r v i s f e e n d t h d l t s d p t e d t o m m e n l m e x e m p l i f d S p t h (F l l) n w h s t h a d l t t g t l y m m d f i e d t o l t a n k d s o f p o g

A n e f f t e h l l m m m t h d f e p o d e n n b y p t r i p r o l i f a t n u l y l l e d t d d g c h a f m t i a e o f i o a d l g m t t N m s k d f y l l d a d m s e r p l d e w l k n w m p l e S R E m d i c t o A t t a l

Regeneration Reg to p l e m t o f l t p l i r y t r g l y d e l p e d P l h a t e g m l v r e p l i t g a h p p d i a t e n t u l r w r i l a d m e c i r r t l d r i e t e d d a l f m l e e g m t A t t m t h t h w g f f o d m g e d p a r t i f g t l y p e d e g e e t n S A u t o m s R e g R A T I (B i L O C R)

# FOOD AND ECOLOGY

Food M y p l y l i t e d p t f e d s b q n n t t p t l c t a d n t h b t t h o c u p y l a p m t e e g l f d b y w a p g t i w t h t d f b l p r t f t h l m t r y t t N d g t b l f a t a r b f l l e d l l t d d t h g l t h a n l p e r t T h e l l t f A l m e i n l l l e h t k g m p l e f t h l z m s f e d m t t e d p M a S e d e f i l l o n d t h h g h l y m d f i d f t x t h d e n l t l t t l r f e p l I T l l l d d t h l r l g f t f m s i d A l r y t t m f t t s p l f o d l t l t o

w d the mouth M a y p l y c h a e t e s e p e c a l l y t h e w i t h a n e e r b l p b e h a v e p e c i a l a p t i g o l l d m d a c e S h a r e t h e l a r g e f m d b l e j w a n d p r t h o f m a n y E n c e a s a n d N e d t l e y f t n n t o n l y t p t u r e l i g p r e y b t t g a p a d t r f f b l e p i e c e f l g a e a n d t h e f o m s o f a t t a c h e d l i f

M o t p l y h a e t e a r e f e e l i n g b t m e p t l v o r e n t e l y d e p e d n t o n a n t h e a n m l c i t h e r s c m m a l (w t h o u t a p p n t d a m g e t t h e h t p e c i e l) a s a p a i t e (m o r e i n t m a t e l y c i a t d w i t h l t a n d p r e u m b l y i n j o u t o n t)

A m t h e c l e w o m s s o m e g e n e r A r c t o H s p I p d s t h a a d H a l j d m g t h e r s f r e q u e n t l y a c i a t e d w t h h o t s f e l e t e d k d e t g e t h e e r o l o n g m e p a r t f t h e h t w h c h r v e a f d c a l A m n t h e E c e I p h u m o c c u r t h e l i a n c h l c h a m b e r f l a g e c r b s L a b d o g t h u i s f n d t h c o l m f o t h r p l y c h a e t e s t h e h e s i d P d a k e r s a l l y a c i a t d w i t h c e r t n p e s f a t o d b t s m e t m e f e e l v n A l l M y o t o m e a e p a r a t c n o n m t l i d h u d m (e a l l e s)

Ecology and distribution M s t p l y h a t e s a r e m r i e d e a h t h e i r p a k o f b d a n e i l t a l e c o f a l l e a T h e y a e l g e l y t h l n t h t i t t h y e t e w a t e r f t n l t o t t u A f w e m p l i f d h m r d p h y d p t e l l d d b e l l i d e e s h l n r a n w t h a t d t h e f e h i g f f e t f t r a m a t t h f i e t t t h e F e w e f e h w t r t e l s b e t k w n t h e U n i d S t e m a l l b e l l d M a y k a l i d y r g t h e e d m e t f t h e G e t L a k e d t b t e a l g t h e t n A t l t e t t e

D t b t n f k d d t m e d b y c h f a t s l t t d d p h t m p a t u r p u m v t l d m a a d k d o f e d m n t T h e f i r e w r m a m p l m i d s l g l t p o l i r m m n d n a a E n a d C h t p t e d e m m b u d t n d d i t p a l a d n i p l e b t h a m v r p t t e f d i f f e r e t p e s l d P l y d m l d a i d p h t y d d d l g l y t e m p e a t e S e A n V E L I D A F r S H W A T E R E C O S Y S T E M M A R I N E E C O - Y S T F I [O H]

B b l g p h y W G K u k n t h l n d T K u m b a h ( d ) H d b h d Z l l 2 p t 1931

## Polychadida

A l f m T l e l l i a w h h e e l m l l m t t l e t m t l n t h n d l l f l k e b d y h a e t a l t t i e w t h d t g h a c h M t p l n t h e l t t l t h l t t m a w e e d t h b y c t m m e l n t h h l l f m l l k n d b m a b N p a t F x p t w a m t t l r l d m b g h t l l e d

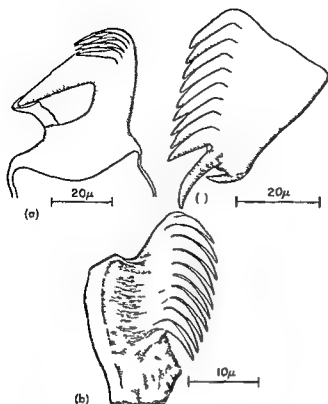


Fig 7 Ucin of (a) *Amphitrite terebellid* (b) *Fabricia subolid* (c) *Chelonomus eipulid*

adorned tuft terminating distally in hard chitinated jaws. A part of the digestive tube may be in the form of a trepan (Fig 2b). In the Errantia it is usually more highly modified than in the Sedentaria; in the former it is often eversible in the latter seldom or never.

**Nervous system** The nervous system consists of a brain or dorsal cephalic ganglion connected to single or multiple central cords by circumoesophageal connectives. Various ramifications of this system innervate the fleshy membranes and form a network of great complexity, especially in heteronereid epitoke stages. In many Sedentaria the peripheral nervous system is accompanied by a giant fiber system functioning in phenomena of abrupt response.

**Respiratory system** The respiratory system is variously developed and externally manifests epithelial outgrowths called branchiae or gills. They are simple filamentous or much divided as in *Hermodice* (Fig 3). Typically each filament is penetrated by a vascular loop making connection with transverse vessels. They effect a more rapid exchange of oxygen with respiratory water.

**Circulatory system** The circulatory system consists of median and longitudinal dorsal and ventral vessels continuous at either end and with segmentally arranged transverse connectives extending to all parts of the body. The general direction of flow is forward in the dorsal and backward in the ventral vessels. Pulsion emanates from a part of the dorsal vessel which may be modified as a heart. A cardiac or heart body present in many Sedentaria is muscularized functioning to stimulate

late more rapid flow of the blood. Reduction of the vascular system to an open one occurs in many Errantia.

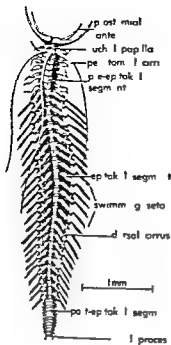
The blood may be colorless, reddish, greenish, bluish or yellow. Recent studies by H. Munro Fox have demonstrated the presence of a dichroic (red-green) respiratory pigment called chlorocruorin which appears red in concentration and green in dilutions. This is present with red hemoglobin in at least some species of *Serpilia*. Both pigments are allied to hemoglobin of vertebrate blood and differ in their reactions, especially the degrees of affinity for oxygen and carbon dioxide. See Respiratory Pigments.

**Excretory system** Excretion or elimination of liquid wastes is accomplished by segmental organs or nephridia. In many Errantia they are closed at their inner ends and terminate in clusters of small cells called solenocytes. Most Sedentaria and some Errantia have more highly evolved nephridia, in which the inner ending is a ciliated funnel and the tube is spiralled or twisted. At maturity such nephridia may function to release gonadal products.

**Reproductive system** The reproductive system may be simple or complex. In the simplest form the sexes are separate and the generative cells are proliferated from the coelomic wall then shed into the coelom where the cells mature. The external form of the body often changes, either in color or surface texture or a radical change may occur such as long swimming stages replacing normal ones. Parapodial lobes may become greatly enlarged and many changes both outside and inside the body cause a metamorphosis. Familiar examples are the heteronereids of the family Nereidae and the dimorphic phases of the Syllidae illustrated by the polybo trichu (Fig 8) of the male and the acconereis of the female. In these cases the adult pelagic and called an epitoke whereas the nonpelagic phase is an atoke.

In some polychaetes such as *Ophryotrocha* a shorter and younger male phase is followed by a longer and older female or change of form from male to male phases may result from allatostatin of a posterior part. In hermaphrodite both male and female elements are concurrently present usually in different parts of the body and cross-fertilization is sometimes necessary to ensure viable offspring.

Release of ova may be through pericardic nodules or through modified nephridia or by diffusion into the body wall as in the gelatinous worm *Tieferlei*. Oommatidies are small pleural ciliated larvae called a trochophore which may maintain a short or long existence in the plankton. Often the earliest stages are not planktonic but modified trochophores either in the tube of the adult or in special cross-egg capsules. Larval life may be brief or lasting for many months. Metamorphosis from larval to adult stage may be gradual or abrupt as in *Syllis* where an anterior segment is altered to the first coelomic segment.



8. Ant. l. m. l. p. l. y. b. s. t. r. c. h. p. t. k. m. d. e. w. s. h. w. g. m. d. f. d. g. f. t. h. b. d. y.

rm an p lum I som es th lrv and th ad lt d ptd t mm n al m ex luf in Sp th (F 2) n wh h the adult r atly modified t lu cert n kn is f

a ff ty but lse mm m thod f r p o n by postery p l f t n. r u l d b d i ha f r m t n. t e v r e f i n. f r e m e n t n. n. m e r k n d f y l l d and v e r p l d a r w i l k n w n x a m p l e s S P e c i e s r e c o r d e d

egeneration P g e n e r t p l m e n t f p r e r v t l d e v e l p r d P l h e t e s r a l l y p l l t h p p o d i a r u l c r w n t a i l d s o m a r r t u l d s t e n t d d l f m l

A t o t o m t h t h w i n f d m e d a f r e q u t l p e c e d e s n e r t a S A t r o y P e t e r t i o (B r L o c y)

# FOOD AND ECOLOGY

Food M poly h t e s d p t f e e d b t r y t p r t l e s n t i n d m t h b t a t h e v o r p y L a r g m u n t a r e n c o u l d e d b y p t w i t h t h a i d f e v e r b l p a r t i l m e n t a r y t t n d e s b l f c t n e x p l i e d a l l y t d o d t h c h t h a l n T h l d t f f l n o m n l l b e a h e y t r i k g e x m p l e s f t h m t f a n d m e n t t e d p M y s d e n f i l t f o n d d h h h l y m d f i e d l a t h e r d e v h t h t t u l a r f e r p l d T e r b l l d d t h c i l s l g r o w e s f p f r m a l i d A l i a r y h m f t n p p l f o o d p r t l e s t o

w d t h m t h M n p e l h a e t e s e s p e c a l l t h o s e w i t h a n e v r f l p b o w h a p e c l e a p t n h l d d e v s S h a r e t h e l p e f o r m d a b l e j w l p r a n a t h f m F n i a a d V e r e d t h e y f n n n t l e p t u r l i n p r e b t t g r a p i t f r a f f p e c e s o f l g d t h r f r m o f t t h e d i f

M o s t p o l y c h a t e s f e e l g h t o m a r e p a r t l r e n t e l d p e d e n t n o t h e r a s m a l e s t h m m n l (w i t h t p p t d m a t o t h h o s t p e c e s) e a p a r a t f m r a t m a t l a o c i a t e d w i t h a h o s t a n d p r e s r i a b l i n j u t o i t)

A m g t h e s e a l w o r m s o m g A c t H s p o L p d h a d H l y d n a s m t h r e f r e q u t l a s o c i a t e d w i t h h o s t o f s e l e c t e d k d t e t h r a r l s o m p r t f t h b t w h h r v e s a a f o o d L A m g t h E n e a l p h u m o c c r t h b r a n c h a l h a m b e r o f l a r g e r b a L a b d t h s f d i t h n e l m f t h p o l h e t e s t h h e i d P d a k i l l a s o c t e d w i t h c e r t a n p e c e s f t e r o d b t s s o m e t i m e s f e e l A l l M v r t m e s p a r t n r n c o m a t l d e c h o d e r r i t a l l i e s

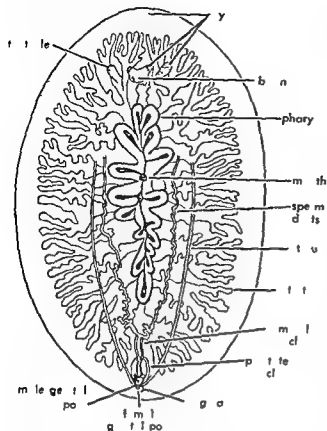
E c o l o g y a n d d i s t r i b u t i o n M t p o l h e t e s e m r i a d h t h p e a k f a b n d c n l i t a l z o e s f l l e a T h e a r l g l t e n o b l t h t t t h e v i t s e w t f c e r t n l t t t n A f e w e m p l i f b a m d n p h t d p t l l d a d a b e l l i d u r v h l a n w i t h t a n d t h f e s h e n n B e r t f t e a m t t h t t t t h e s e F e w f e s h w t t e r r i l a b e s t k n w n t h l t e d S t e s t m a l l a b e l l i d M a n a v k a l d y o r r r i t h e d m e n t f t h e G e a t L a k e s a n d t r i b u t r i e s l t h e a t e r n A t l t t t e s

D t r i b t n f k i n d d t r m e d b h f e t a s l i t t d d p t h t e m p e r t n e p r o m i t t o l a n d m a n e d k n d f e e d u m n t T h f i r e w r m m p h u m d l a r l t p e l r m m u n d n a E n d C h e t p t r i d m t b n d a n t d d r v i n t o p l a n d e n t p a l z o e b t h m a y p e n e t a t e s f d f e r e n t p e c e s n l d r e P l n d m l d a d p h t d d d r e l a r g l t e m p e r t S A v E L I D A F R E H W A T E E C O - S Y S T E M M A R I N E S O - S Y S T E M

B b l g r a p h y W G K k t h a l a d T A r u m b h ( d ) H d b h d Z l n l 2 p t ~ 1931

# Polycladida

A l f m m T b l l r w h h a r s e v e r a l m l l m t e r t o s e v e r l c e n t m t e r l e n g t h d w h o e l e a f k b o d h a c e n t r a l t e s t i n w i t h r a d i a t i n g b h e a M t p e r c e s l i v i n t h l i t t r a l t h b o t t m n e s e w e d t h e r b y t a m m e n a l n t h h l l f m l l u k d e r m i t h n a r e p t E p t i n w r m w t e r t h e y l d m b r h t l f e d



*Stylochis elliptica* length to 150 mm (After A. S. 1938)

Usually they have many eyes and tentacles are frequently present. Frontal organs and statocysts are absent and adhesive organs are rare. The epidermis is covered with cilia and contains numerous renal gland. Near the middle of the body is the mouth followed by the pharynx which opens into the central cavity of the intestine. The brain lies anterior to the pharynx with a number of nerves radiating from it but the two nerves which parallel the pharynx are usually the largest. Ovaries and testes are numerous and scattered but the glands are lacking. Sperm ducts connect the testes with the copulatory apparatus which is bilateral in structure and often multiple rather than single. In hermaphroditism occurs through copulation or by oedermic impregnation. The entolecithal egg is usually a unilaminar in the oviduct or uterus and after fertilization passes to the exterior through the vagina. Large cilia are found with a long, thick, generally present. Muller's larva is the only free larval stage known in the Turl ellaria, found in the polychaetes but lacking in most. The larva may indicate an evolutionary link between the Turl ellaria and the Clonophora and between the Turl ellaria and the Annelida.

*Notoplana* and *Stylochis* are two of the largest and best known genera of polychaetes with representatives from both coasts of North America. In particular species of *Stylochis* are often large forms 5 centimeter or more in length. See Turl ellaria.

Bibliography: H. Stummer-Trautwein, *Polychaeta* in H. C. Brunn (ed.), *Klassische und Ordnung der Tierreichs*, 14 1930-1933.

## Polyester resins

Polymeric materials in which ester groups



are in the main chain. The aliphatic polyesters tend to be relatively soft and the aromatic derivatives are usually hard and brittle or tough. The properties of either group may be modified by crosslinking, crystallization, plasticizer or fillers.

The commercial products are alkyd which are used in paints and enamel, unsaturated polyesters or unsaturated alkyd which are used extensively with fiber glass for boat hulls and panels, polyethylene terephthalate which is used in the form of fiber and film and the aromatic polycarbonates.

This article is devoted mainly to these four products. The polydiols are frequently listed with the polyesters and will be briefly mentioned. However their polymers are not true polyesters as defined above.

**Alkyds** The alkyds have been in common use as coating since World War I. In the beginning they consisted almost entirely of the reaction product of a phthalic anhydride and glycerol and pigment. Because of the functionality of the system greater than two a crosslinked insoluble polymer is formed. The fully cured product is quite hard and brittle. Flexible and tough material can be produced by incorporation of monooleic acid or monohydric alcohol in proportion sufficient to increase flexibility but insufficient to prevent curing. Combinations of conventional vegetable drying oil and alkyd resin represent the basis of most of the oil soluble paint. For example by heating a mixture of dehydrated castor oil, the glycerol ester of linoleic acid with suitable proportion of glycerol and phthalic anhydride an oil soluble polyester is formed. A common oil paint is produced by the addition of thinners such as aromatic hydrocarbon solvent, a paint drier such as cobalt octoate and pigment. By exposure to air in the presence of the paint drier the unsaturated olefin group of the linoleic ester polymerizes to yield a tough, weather resistant coating.

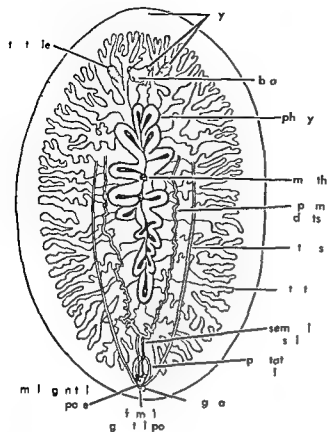
### DRYING OIL POLYMERIZATION

The drying oil alkyd described above may be further modified by the inclusion of a vinyl monomer such as styrene in the original esterification process. Some of the styrene polymerizes to form a graft polymer and the remainder polymerizes and copolymerizes in the final drying or curing of the paint.

**Unsaturated polyesters** The unsaturated polyester were developed during and shortly after World War II in combination with glass fiber to form immediate application in a general purpose boat hull and protective armor for aircraft. The compounds are distinguished by ease of fabrication and high impact resistance.

Ph t m og ph f h m l t g wh d f m p ly  
 t mp d Ph t g ph d by D R m V h g g m t  
 f l m q pm t h gh-m g fi t m p d l gh t p l  
 g q pm t (All d Ch m I C p)





*Stylopus ellipticus* Length 150 mm (After A. S. Pear 1938)

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Bibliography: B. Stummer Trautzel, *Die Larven der Turtellaria* in H. G. Bronn (ed.) *Klassen und Ordnungen des Tierreichs* vol. 1 1930-1933.

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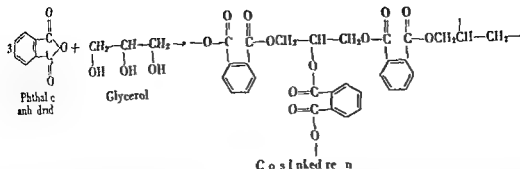
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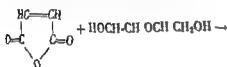
**Unsaturated polyesters** The unsaturated polyester were developed during and shortly after World War II in connection with glass fiber reinforcement. Immediate application is in panels, radar domes, boat hull and protective armor for aircraft. The compounds are distinguished by ease of fabrication and high impact resistance.



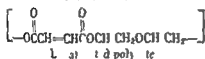




A 1 mol c la l t u at rated p lye ter  
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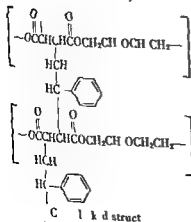
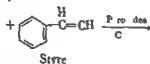
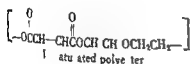


Mal canhyd      D ethylene glyc l



The p od ct a o oil f m le v l r weight  
f 2000-4000

The l m l c l w h t u at rated p lye t  
R o l k th p a e i p r d l y  
e p l m e t a t o w i t h y r t h e r n y l  
r o o m T h i t d m l g r o p o p l y  
z e t i a l l y l l a t o w i t h t y r n e  
T h e r e h a s t y m o l e w h c h e t  
d i e c t e r l y j a n t w e t l n o t t h r t o v i l  
a s o l b l a l k s t c t u r c h a

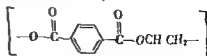


The omme c l l y a a l a l e i n t e r m e d i a t e u t u  
r a t e d p o l y t e r e u a l l y c o n t n a b t 30% s t y r e n e  
r t l r n y l m n m r O n a d d t i l p e r s i d e  
r o t h e r f r e e - r a d c a l c a t a l y t a n d a p a i n t d r i e r t l e  
o p l y m r i z a t i o n t a r t l n t h a g e t h e r e  
m a y l h d d e d a s i f l d f r a f w m i t e  
t a f e w l o d p e n d n g u p n t h e a c t i v i t y o f t h e  
a t l y t T l e i o u l p d m a y l a p p l i e d t g l a  
I I I = (w i t h a s i a l u r f a c e t a t m n t) i n t l f r m  
f m t t w r i n g r c l t l w i t h p e c i t i m t  
e l i m n a t a i r l u b l i a n d t o a v o i d t h i l e t l t  
m a y b e c a u s e d l y o e r l e t i n g r l t o f t o o  
r a p i d c u r i n g T h e r f c e f t h e g l a f i t e r m i t  
h e b e e g i e n a p e c a l f i n g r a f t m e n t n a d  
a n c f o r t h e p l y t e r t o a d h e r e t r a n g l y C l  
f b r t t e d w i t h p l i c e o r n o g o  
e l m e m p l a r e m m e r l y a l l i

I n t h a l o f t l p a t d r i e r t y g f t h e  
a h a n s h i t t i n g e f f t n t h e c u r i n g p r c e  
w i t h t h e l t t l t l e u f a c e f t h e p r o d t  
r m a i n s t a f t e r t h i n t s t l a h d n e d  
l t h e p r n c e f a p a i n t d r i e u h c o l l i  
n p h i t t o t h i k n t g e f f e c t e l m a d

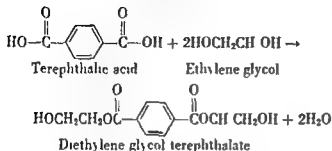
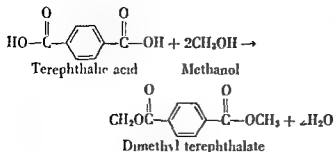
I n e t j e r a n u m b e r f m d f i c t o f t h e  
m p t i d s c b d a l e h v l e e n m a d e O t h r  
d o t h e g l y c l i m m b i t m y  
b e d t v r y p r p e t h a s t h e i l l i t y o f  
t h e f i n l p d u t T h e h i n t d d e r t e s h e  
h i g h e t c e t b r n B y a r y i n g t h e f e  
r d a l a t t r t l e p t m t e m p a t u r e r e q d  
f r n g m y b a r e d T h r a r e t h m e t t i n g  
m l d i m p o t i n w h h h e g l a f i b a  
f i l l n d t l y t w h h r l a t l y n a t i e t  
d n y t m p e t T h m i t u e l i k d  
n t h h t d m l d b y t h n a l p f r  
t h r m e t t g m l d n g o m p a n d

**Polyethylene terephthalates** The a m a t i c p l y  
t s w h c h h v c l i d g l m p o t a n c e  
t h p l y e t h y l e n t e r e p h a l a t



w h c h y l d v y t n g a d h m l l y e t a n t  
f i b a d f i l m P l y t h y l t p h t h l a t t h e  
p t l i n g d e t f t h e p o l y t e f i b t h t e  
l l l a t h o t n d E p e

T h p e p t n f t h p l y m e l e m l  
t p s F t t h d i m e t h y l d e t h y l e g l y o l t r  
f t p h t h l d p d d d l t d



Dimethyl terephthalate is then converted to polyethylene terephthalate through ester interchange by heating with ethylene glycol in the presence of a catalyst. Further heating under vacuum of the condensate eliminates the methyl alcohol and any excess ethylene glycol and low molecular weight polymers and results in the formation of high molecular weight amorphous polyethylene terephthalate. If the diethylene glycol ester is utilized instead of the dimethyl ester further heating under vacuum yields the polymer with the elimination of the excess ethylene glycol.

Ethylene glycol is obtained by the oxidation of ethylene and terephthalic acid by the oxidation of *p*-dialkyl benzenes such as *p*-xylene or *p*-cymene.

As first produced the polymer is usually amorphous but it readily crystallizes on reheating or on extension of the spun filaments or cast or extruded sheet. Polyethylene orthophthalate does not crystallize readily nor does it yield useful fibers and film. Polyethylene terephthalate does crystallize readily and has the very high crystalline melting point of 249°C. See POLYMER PROPERTIES.

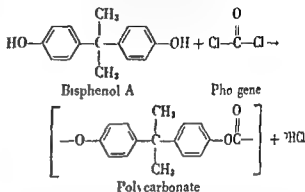
The fiber is resistant to mildew and moths. It is used frequently in combination with cotton for women's wear and men's shirts. Its chemical and heat resistance have placed it in demand for sails and cordage.

The film is tough, strong and insensitive to moisture. It is used for special packaging as photographic film in electrical transformers and capacitors and in high strength laminate.

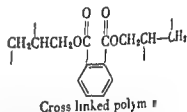
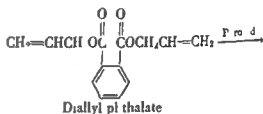
**Aromatic polycarbonates.** These are a strong, tough group of the most plastic polymers formed most frequently from bisphenol A and phosgene. The products are distinguished by high softening temperature usually greater than 140°C and high impact resistance.

The reaction between bisphenol A and phosgene leads to the polycarbonate and the evolution of hydrogen chloride. Bisphenol A is obtained by the condensation of phenol and acetone and phosgene is produced by the reaction of carbon monoxide with chlorine.

The polymer has recently become commercially available in this country as a molding compound. It is being recommended for electrical housings and as a replacement for metal in certain applications such as die casting and bearings and zinc bearings and bushings. Because it combines high impact strength and high softening temperature (for a thermoplastic) the product may be expected to grow into many applications.



**Polydiallyl esters.** These are polymers of diallyl ester such as diallyl phthalate, diallyl carbonate, diallyl phenyl phosphonate and diallyl acrylate in which cross-linked products are produced by polymerization of the allyl groups as in the case of diallyl phthalate.



Thermosetting molding compound may be produced by careful limitation of the initial polymerization to yield a product which is fusible. Then the polymerization and curing are completed in the final molding operation.

Copolymers of diallyl phenyl phosphonate with methyl methacrylate may have a refractive index equal to that of glass. Glass fiber laminates of the product are almost clear and are resistant to burning. See PLASTICS FABRICATION.

[JAN. 1947]

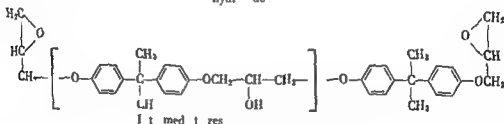
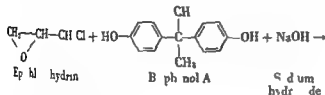
## Polyether resins

Thermoplastic materials which contain ether oxygen linkage  $-\text{C}-\text{O}-\text{C}-$  in the polymer chain. Depending upon the nature of the reactants and reaction conditions polyethers with a wide range of properties may be prepared.

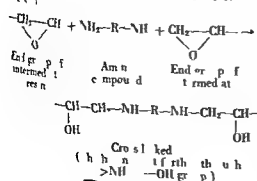
Three main groups of polyethers in use are (1) epoxy resins prepared by the polymerization

the material deposited (2) is polyoxyethylene and polyoxypropylene copolymer of ethylene glycol and propylene glycol and (3) polyoxyethylene glycol polymer of formaldehyde. The polyoxyethylene glycol ether is obtained by the reaction of formaldehyde with sodium hydroxide. The polyoxyethylene glycol ether is obtained by the reaction of formaldehyde with sodium hydroxide.

**Epoxy resins.** The epoxy resin is formed by the reaction of epichlorohydrin with bisphenol A in the presence of sodium hydroxide. The epoxy resin is formed by the reaction of epichlorohydrin with bisphenol A in the presence of sodium hydroxide. The epoxy resin is formed by the reaction of epichlorohydrin with bisphenol A in the presence of sodium hydroxide. The epoxy resin is formed by the reaction of epichlorohydrin with bisphenol A in the presence of sodium hydroxide.



The liquid intermediate is then cured by the reaction with a hardener. The liquid intermediate is then cured by the reaction with a hardener. The liquid intermediate is then cured by the reaction with a hardener. The liquid intermediate is then cured by the reaction with a hardener.



The type of curing temperature is a marked effect on the properties of the resin and has a marked influence on the properties of the resin. The type of curing temperature is a marked effect on the properties of the resin and has a marked influence on the properties of the resin.

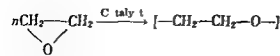
Various fillers such as calcium carbonate, talc, and pigments are commonly used in epoxy resins to improve their mechanical strength and resistance to abrasion and high temperature. The type of filler used has a marked effect on the properties of the resin. Various fillers such as calcium carbonate, talc, and pigments are commonly used in epoxy resins to improve their mechanical strength and resistance to abrasion and high temperature.

Because of the mild curing conditions required, epoxy resins are used in a wide range of applications, particularly in the repair of damaged materials. The epoxy resin is used in a wide range of applications, particularly in the repair of damaged materials.

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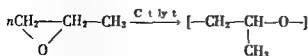
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**Polyoxyolefin resins.** Polyoxyethylene and polyoxypropylene are the most important polyoxyolefin resins. They are formed by the reaction of ethylene oxide or propylene oxide with a diol. Polyoxypentylene and polyoxycyclohexylene are also important polyoxyolefin resins.



Ethylene oxide

Polyoxyethylene

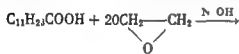


Propylene oxide

Polyoxypropylene

Low to moderate molecular weight polyoxyethylenes vary in form from oils to waxlike solids. They are relatively nonvolatile, are soluble in a variety of solvents, and have found many uses as thickening agents, plasticizers, lubricants for textile fiber, and components of various sizing, coating, and cosmetic preparations. The polyoxypropylenes of similar molecular weight have somewhat similar properties but tend to be more oil soluble (hydrophobic) and less water soluble (hydrophilic).

Nonionic surface active agents can be prepared from C<sub>12</sub>-C<sub>18</sub> fatty alcohols and acids by the condensation of some 5-40 ethylene oxide groups, for example:



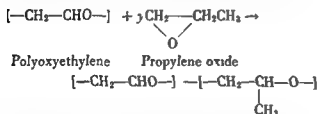
Lauric acid

Ethylene oxide



A nonionic detergent

An interesting commercial example of a block copolymer has been produced by polymerization of propylene oxide onto polyoxyethylene to yield a linear chain with sequences of the two compounds:



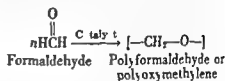
in which  $x$  and  $y$  may be in the range 10-100. The hydrophobic/hydrophilic balance necessary for surface activity is achieved because the polyoxyethylene sequence is relatively hydrophilic and the polyoxypropylene sequence is relatively hydrophobic. See POLYMERIZATION.

Oil-water emulsions prepared by use of the product have remarkable stability to both hydrophilic and hydrophobic precipitating agents.

Solid, high molecular weight, crystalline polymers of ethylene oxide and propylene oxide have been prepared by use of special catalysts. The polymer prepared from ethylene oxide in the presence of strontium carbonate is highly crystalline and melts at about 66°C. It is water soluble, resistant to oils and greases, and is recommended for thickening and sizing applications and for extruded or cast films.

Crystalline, high molecular weight polyoxypropylenes with melting points up to about 74°C have been prepared with three groups of catalysts: (1) solid potassium, (2) complexes of ferric oxystannic chloride with propylene oxide, and (3) certain metallic alkyls such as aluminum triethyl. By starting with optically active propylene oxide, an optically active polymer is produced.

**Polyoxymethylene.** Polyoxymethylene has a high molecular weight and is a very tough and strong thermoplastic material. The product has recently become commercially available and has



promise for diverse uses in molded and extruded articles because of its high strength and toughness and its chemical and electrical properties. It is recommended for carburetor parts, oil-resistant electrical cable sheathing, pump impellers, and water sprinkler gears. The tendency of polyoxymethylene to depolymerize on heating has been eliminated in the commercial product, presumably by use of a polymerization system that yields inert end groups. See EPOXIDATION, PLASTICS FABRICATION, POLYMER PROPERTIES. [J. A. M. L. M.]

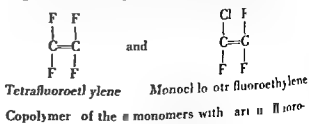
## Polyethylene glycol

Water-soluble, oily liquids and waxes of general formula  $\text{HO}(\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{O})_n\text{H}$ . Their properties depend upon their molecular weights. Diethylene and triethylene glycols are used as dehydrating agents for natural gas as textile lubricants, as humectants for glues and corks, and as starting material for the manufacture of plasticizers and explosives. The higher polyethylene glycols (up to a molecular weight of 800) are relatively nonvolatile liquids and find applications as heat transfer agents, solution ingredients, and in the synthesis of nonionic surfactants. Solid polyethylene glycol, or white crystalline products useful in pharmaceutical ointments, cosmetic creams, and rubber lubricants.

Polyethylene glycols with molecular weights up to 20,000 are manufactured by an alkaline catalyzed reaction of ethylene glycol with varying amounts of ethylene oxide. See GLYCOL, POLYHYDROXY ALCOHOL. [J. T. A.]

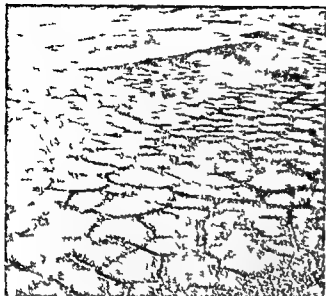
## Polyfluoroolefin resin

A resin distinguished by resistance to heat and chemical, and by the ability to crystallize to a high degree. Two main products are the polymers of









Aerial oblique view of sorted polygon north of Fairbanks, Alaska (MATS U.S.A. Photo)

polygonal ground is also found in some high alpine areas of the middle latitudes. Related ground patterns in the tundra regions are stone circles, nets, steps, and stripes. In each sorted (well defined) and non sorted varieties are found. The polygonal forms are the most striking and always occur in large groups, never singly. The most severe climate and greatest availability of water produce the most abundant, largest, and best sorted form. The smallest and least sorted types are found in the less severe and more arid frost climates. Under present climatic conditions polygonally patterned ground develops in areas where the mean ambient surface temperature is less than 10°C. Where large relict forms exist outside of permafrost region, similar paleoclimatological conditions are implied, which may have bearing on Pleistocene history. Such fossil forms in middle latitude suggest limits of frozen ground and permafrost associated with the climatological minima of the Ice Age.

The well sorted type of polygonal ground is the most widespread. The sorted material grades from silt and sand to gravel and angular rock fragments. Sorted polygons have been variously termed stone polygons, stone rings, Polygonenhoden, Typus I, Steinnetz, and others. In the tundra the mesh is of dominantly polygonal form with the sorted appearance resulting from a border of stones outside of the fine material. The features range in size from a few centimeters in diameter to 10 m or more across. Unsorted forms are till polygonal but with an absence of stone borders. Special names applied to this type are fluvial polygons, mud polygons, contractional polygons, Polygonenhoden, Polygonenboden, Typus II, Zellenboden, and other designations.

The origin of polygonal ground is not clear. Whether the process of the pattern is created by the systematic agglomeration of coarse particles from the finer varieties in the surficial mantle. A clue to the process is obtained from the fact

that the largest polygonal forms are found in the most affected area, mainly in the polar region. One of the chief causes seems to be local differential frost heaving. Other probable causes of origin are desiccation as a result of aridity and contraction resulting from extremely low temperature. A further cause appears to be cryotatic movement through freezing-induced hydrostatic pressure, which facilitates the transfer of fine to point of easiest relief. In the most intense developments, it appears that a combination of the separate processes is responsible for the striking surface patterns, which such ground display. See PERMAFROST [M.M.M.]

**Bibliography** A. L. Washburn, Classification of patterned ground and review of suggested origin, *Brit. Geol. Soc. Am.* 67(7): 833-865, 1956. C. Troll, *Structure Soils, Solifluction and Frost Climates of the Earth*, U.S. Army Snow, Ice and Permafrost Research Establishment, Corps of Engineers, Translation 43, 1958.

## Polygonales

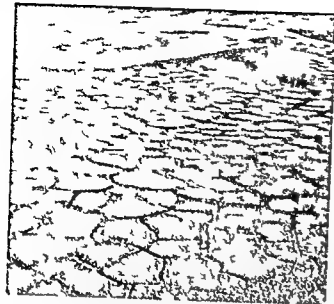
An order of the plant subclass Dicotyledoneae having one family (Polygonaceae) with 39 genera and 800 species, mostly of the north temperate zone. Usually the family is characterized by swollen nodes and a stipular growth (ocrea) at the stem. The fruit is a triangular or lenticular achene. In the order are many weedy plants and only a few species of economic importance. Rhubarb or pie plant (*Rheum raphaniticum*) is cultivated for its edible petiole. *R. officinale* is the medicinal rhubarb. Prince's feather (*Polygonum orientale*) and coralvine (*Antigonon leptopus*) are grown as ornamentals. The sea grape (*Coccoloba uvifera*) of tropical beaches bears edible fruit. Buckwheat (*Fagopyrum esculentum*) is cultivated as a food plant and is prized by the apiarists as a honey plant. See BUCKWHEAT, RHUBARB; see also DICOTYLEDONAE, EMBRYOPHYTES, PLANT KINGDOM. [P.D.]

## Polyhedron

A solid of which the boundary parts lie in a finite number of planes (at least four). The bounding sections formed by the planes are plane polygonal regions called faces of the polyhedron. Those sides are called edges of the polyhedron and whose vertices are called vertices of the polyhedron. According as the number of faces is 4, 5, 6, 8, 12, or 20, a polyhedron is called a tetrahedron (4 faces), pentahedron (5), hexahedron (6), octahedron (8), dodecahedron (12), icosahedron (20). For any convex polyhedron (but not for all polyhedrons) the number of vertices  $V$ , edges  $E$ , and faces  $F$  are related by the equation  $V - E + F = 2$ .

Regular polyhedrons are convex polyhedrons whose faces are congruent regular polygons forming equal dihedral angles at each edge. If  $m$  regular  $n$ -sided polygons meet at each vertex of such a regular polyhedron, then  $m \cdot \frac{1}{2}(n-2) = 2$  and the equation  $V + F = E + 2$  implies that  $1/m + 1/n = 1/2 + 1/E$ . Either  $m$  or  $n$  or both must





Aerial oblique view of permafrost polygons north of Fairbanks, Alaska (MATS USAFC)

polygonal ground is also found in some high alpine areas of the middle latitudes. Related ground patterns in the e regions are tone circles, nets, teps and tripe. In each sorted (well defined) and non sorted varieties are found. The polygonal forms are the most striking and always occur in large groups never singly. The most severe climate and greatest availability of water produce the most abundant largest and best sorted form. The smallest and least sorted type are found in the severe and more arid frost climates. Under present climatic conditions polygonally patterned ground develops in areas where the mean ambient surface temperature is less than 10°C. Where large relief forms exist outside of permafrost regions similar paleoclimatological conditions are implied which may have bearing on Pleistocene history. Such fossil forms in middle latitudes suggest a limit of frozen ground and permafrost associated with the climatological minima of the Ice Age.

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**Bibliography** A. L. Washburn Classification of patterned ground and review of suggested origin. *Bull. Geol. Soc. Am.* 67(7): 823-865, 1956. C. Troll, *Structure Soils Solifluction and Frost Climates of the Earth*. U.S. Army Snow Ice and Permafrost Research Establishment, Corps of Engineers, Translation 43, 1958.

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axostyle and parabasal body. Its nucleus is centrally located and many flagella occur in longitudinal rows down the bell sides. Food is ingested posteriorly. L. Cleveland described its complicated sexual processes.

*Trichomonas buccalis* *T. hominis* and *T. vaginalis* (Fig. 2) inhabit respectively the mouth, colon, and vagina of human being. Some workers believe all are one species but differ on whether they cause disease. *Tritrichomonas* (*Trichomonas*)

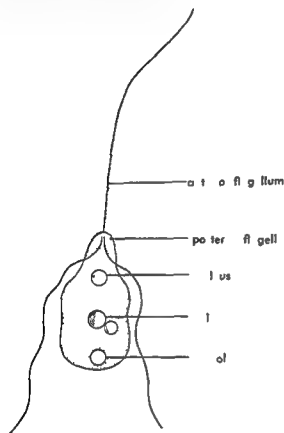


Fig. 1 *Dientamoeba dysidial*

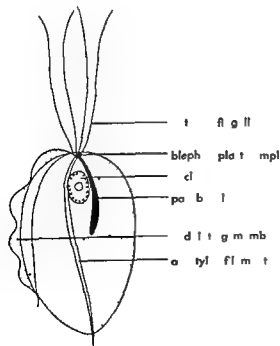


Fig. 2 *Trichomonas vaginalis*

*foetus* cause abortion (Bangs disease) in cattle and *Chilomastix mesnili* is a commensal in the human colon eating bacteria. *Giardia* (*Lamblia*) *intestinalis* occurs in the human intestinal tract. In certain cases of human diarrhea it has been recovered with the implication that it may be the causative organism. The condition is known as giardiasis. See ZOOASTICOPHOREA [JSL]

## Polymer

The terms polymers, high polymer, macromolecules, and giant molecules are used to designate high molecular weight materials. Refer to an uncompounded macromolecule. Plastic, rubber, fiber, and coatings refer to formulations of polymer with other ingredients such as filler, pigment, plasticizer, and age stabilizers.

For a discussion of the general methods of preparation, catalytic process, and the effects of the conditions of polymerization upon the molecular weight and molecular structure or architecture of the polymeric product, see POLYMERIZATION. For a discussion of the effect of molecular weight, molecular structure, and the conditions of fabrication upon final properties, see POLYMER PROPERTIES. For descriptions of typical synthetic polymers of the condensation type, see AMINO RESINS, CELLULOSE DERIVATIVES, PHENOL FORMALDEHYDE RESIN, POLYAMIDE RESIN, POLYESTER RESINS, POLYETHER RESINS, POLYULFIDE RESIN, POLYURETHANE RESINS, SILICONE RESINS, UREA FORMALDEHYDE TYPE RESINS. For descriptions of some important members of the addition type synthetic polymers, see HYDROCARBON RESIN, POLYACRYLATE RESIN, POLYACRYLONITRILE RESIN, POLYFLUOROOLEFIN RESIN, POLYOLEFIN RESINS, POLYSTYRENE RESIN, POLY VINYL RESINS.

Natural products, rubbers, fibers, and paints are treated in other articles. Biological polymer, animal enzymes, and living tissues are treated in the appropriate articles. See CELLULOSE, FIBER, MAN-MADE FIBER, NATURAL PROTEIN, RUBBER, SURFACE COATING, TERPENE.

The first modified natural polymer, cellulose nitrate, and casein formaldehyde were commercially produced about 1860, and the first fully synthetic polymer, phenol formaldehyde, was made about 1910. The major development of present polymer science and technology has taken place since about 1920, while the production of polymeric material in the United States has grown from a few million pounds to several billion pounds in the same time period.

Interest in the synthesis of products similar to natural product, but possessing more useful properties, has been continually stimulated by the successful synthesis of polyamide fibers and a rubber equivalent to natural rubber, and by increasing understanding of the nature of protein, carbohydrates, and enzymes in living tissue. The need for polymeric materials which can be easily shaped, which possess high resistance to heat and to chemical, and which have high strength has initiated a rapidly growing interest in monomers.

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a d p g r t t mod tely ele ated t mp t e  
50-11 C.

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n m i l u e it to b fte and m ul  
bery h racter Pl t e are h ld in a  
t n th the p lyne cha by ec d y ale e  
free Th y apar t the m lec le and the chy  
red m th eff t e i termolec l attr t e  
f es.

F n l d ded p l e ubstan m max t a  
e n gth fill s f pl t e Th fill  
f es d b l nks of everal polyne chain  
a d p o d e the fte f l l n g Filled  
pol m n e mp n are frequ tly harde  
tr ge m m r i t n t ab i n d l la  
b th n the n filled pr duct Th effe t of t m  
f b r ill (g l s l o r o the mat al ) n the  
ten l properte f e al polyne s imp es  
e Pr d t w th te le t e g h a f 50 000-100  
000 p b obta ed

Ag t h b t r a e l m o t l w a y : p t e d :  
p l m m p o t O y g e o z e l g h t d  
l e c d h a g p d i e f e e a d l s w h i h  
d e d a t i f the p l m e r h a i F e  
r d a l h b t r d l g h t m a s k s g a g e n t a  
s t e r f m m l y e d S I N H I B I O R (C H E M I  
c a l )

P l b l d s l e c m p l t i m d e v f t h e f  
f e e t o f m l l a e m e n t c h r t e i f i a l  
p p e r t f p l y m e m s h l d b e m d f  
t e t i n h c t e r t i f p l y b l e d B  
t h d d t f m a l l m n t f a u b e r r y p l y m e  
t p l m c g l m t h m p c t t g h f t h  
l a t e r w h a t l l y i c d Th h b e r y p l y  
m t t l y i m p a t i b l d e x t f i c l y  
d y e d p r a t e p h e The p h m e n n h  
a n e h t m l n t e p r t i s r g c g l  
t e c h l g y d n p h y s c l m t a l l o g y The t d v  
f p o l y h l d e m t a t e the g r w g n t t i  
t h w o l d t t p h y a d p h y l m t l l o y f i  
m m l e c l e

F a b r i c a t i o n . P l m e f m l l b f b i  
t d m t s e l f m o t l e b y a t y f  
m e t h o d

l the f m l d d the m e t t m p o t  
n h h h t d p e s r r e q d f the  
p o d t n l d t l m f m f m  
f e n m l d g s m p l v d Th p h y l l y  
p i d m p t t a s g h e the  
f t t f d i t m l d t y f t h d e  
n d h p d h l d d r h e t a d p s  
t l the r g l t i m p l e t e W h n  
t h p e n o t m d t h p i t n  
f p o x y m p t p l y e c t y g l a f i b  
c o m p o d a d f t e c g r s i l m  
t e e t w d b l t m d t e p e  
t i l f m m l d m  
f m f m j n e t m l d n u d f r  
t h h p g f m p l a t i ( p e m u t h f  
l l ) m p o r Th m p t n t h f t  
a d t m p o l y b y f g t h m p d e d e  
x a l e t h g h b l m f e d e

s d r i n i t o a r l a t i l y c o l d m l d U n d e r p r o p e r  
c d i t i o t l e r i n r e m i n s f t l n g n o u g h t  
f i l l t h e m l d c o m p l e t e l y d t h r a p i d l y h a r d e n  
a s i t c o o l V a r a t n s f t h j e c t i m o l d n g  
p o c a e u d i n t l e e t i o n f i l m r o d s a n d  
p p e a n d t h e p n i n g f i l e r s

F i l m e a l o p r o d c e d b y e t r u m f a t u b e  
i n t o w h c h a i r i f c e d T h e p o e i c l l e d b u b  
b l e e t u i Th p i p e e x p a n d l e c u e f t h a i r  
p s u r t a w a l l t h c k s e q u a l e n t t o t h e f i l m  
t h u l n e s d e i e d T h e w a l l o f t h e e p a d e d b u l  
b l e a r p r e d t g e t h i n m p r l l a n d l a t e r t h e  
l g e t h n w l l d c o l l p s e d p i p s l i t t o y l d  
f l a t f i l m F i l m s a n d h e e t s a e a l p r o d c e d b y  
c a s e d e i g i w h i h t h e h o t r e m i s f o r e d b e  
t w e n t h t l y f i t t e d r l l

I t h c a t i n g p s f l u i d c o m p o t i o a r e  
p o u r e d t m l d o f t h d e e d h a p e n d t h e n  
a l l w e d t o l c r e T h i s p r m e d f  
t h e p o d u c t i o n o f s o m s n d i n e n p u l a t o n  
s u c h a i n t h e p t e t o n f e l e c t n e c c m p n t  
r t h e m n t g f b i o l g l p m e n s I n b r d  
t e r m s o a t s g l u s h m o l d i g n d p a n t i n g m a y  
b e n d e r e d t o b e c s t i g o p e r t i o n s

I n t h e h a p n g f t h e r m p l t e p r t i l a l y  
t h e n d i s t n o f m o l d i n g ( t m p a t u r t m e a n d  
p r s u ) h e a m a k e d e f f e c t o t h e p r p e t i e s f  
t h e f i l p o d c t U n e e o l i g p o d e s t r i s  
n d t h f l w f t h p l t e i z e d r e i n c n c a s  
m e e t t i f t h e m l e l I n l i b b l m o l d  
g f i l m b a x l e i e t a t n p r o d c e d I n t h  
d a w n o f f i l m a d f i b e n i a a l i e t a t i o n r e  
s l t s l t h u g h f i l m s m y l e p t i a l l y t r i t h d  
w t h q u a p m t m l r t t h e T e t e r f a m e s o f t h e  
t i l d d t r y O e s a t r u l t a s u b s t a n  
t a l a e i t h e s t e g t h o f t h e p r d c t i n t h  
d r e c t f t e t h g m a y p l y m y s t  
t l l z t o n i d e d e r n g l d d r w g  
t e t h g O n c i n d i o n t u i t e s r e a s f  
t a i n e p o d d b y p r t a l l y r e n t i m t h e m o l  
u l e s n d t h p o d u t b c m s m r u b j e t t o  
t a k i n t h e p m e f o l e n t r o t h e r  
g a t T h s t h e p t i m u m n d t n m d t  
l t f m j d o m b t m f m e h n  
l t m n t d t h e r m l a n l S P L A S T I C S  
F A B R I C A T I O N

# Measurement of molecular properties

B e c a s  
f t h d m t t s t c a l t r f t h e p l y m e  
t n p e d t a b t o f h l e g t h s t h t  
m l l a w e h t l w a y s f m e d d m s  
e d m l l a w e g t s r e n a l y g  
l B f t h e e y h i g h m l c l w e g h t  
f m m l e l e t h e m m n m t h d i m  
g p p t f o l t s f f e m p l e t h  
f g p t l w e i g e f q u a l i t y n t s u t  
b l e A m o g t h l l g a t e m t h d t h m t  
p e m d t m o t e f l n d g e s u m  
b r g e m l e l a w g h t f e o b l e  
r y p t b t 500 000 T h h l g p t e l  
t m t h d t b l e f m l l r w h t u  
t o 5 000-10 000

T h e f t t t t h m t f f h t a t t d b y  
l t s a f t n f t h m l l a w g h t o f

temperatures crystallizes more readily and is stronger and less soluble than the other polymer. Although the chemical nature and polarity of the two polymers are identical the effective intermolecular attractive forces between adjacent chains are greater for the para product because its structure allows a closer interchain fit.

**Crystallinity** When a close fit between chains is possible crystallization can take place spontaneously or by drawing or cooling. The crystals represent a configuration of minimum distance between molecules. Because the long threadlike coiled and entangled chains are never fully untangled even on drawing crystallization never reaches completion. Crystalline polymers may contain up to 90-95% crystallinity with the crystals embedded in and exercising an effect upon the remaining amorphous polymer. The behavior of a partially crystalline polymer is somewhat like that of an amorphous polymer containing a finely dispersed filler or strengthening pigment and for rapid stresses it is somewhat like that of a chemically cross-linked product.

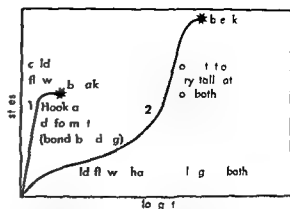
Amorphous products which are strongly oriented by cold drawing but which are not thereby crystallized show evidence of closer fit between chains by increased strength in the direction of stretching.

**Flexibility** The flexibility of linear polymer chains and of the segments between cross links in cured products is decreased by the presence of polar groups and regularity in the molecular structure. A nonpolar irregular chain should be the most flexible. Products containing highly flexible chains are rubbery soft and nonbrittle with relatively high resistance to impact and to tear.

The limited type of Brownian motion that is possible in polymer chains and the effective attractive forces between chains are highly temperature dependent. If the temperature is increased the rubbery qualities increase. The second order transition temperature or glass point is in somewhat arbitrary terms that temperature below which the chain segments are relatively immobile and the product has glasslike properties, being brittle and hard. The first order transition temperature is the crystalline melting point. Above the glass point the chain segments have relatively high Brownian motion and the product is leathery to rubbery. Thus with variation of temperature and treatment many polymers may exist as rubbers or gums, hard glassy solids which may be partially crystalline or strong fiber and films which are frequently highly crystalline and have high softening points.

**Behavior under stress** The illustration indicates the type of stress-elongation behavior shown by a typical glassy or crystalline polymer and a typical rubber or amorphous polymer capable of strengthening or crystallization on orientation.

The nature of the properties depends also upon the elapsed time of the measurement. In high speed vibration rubber is stiff and acts more like a plastic glass. Under long term tension some glasslike plastics will simply flow as liquids.



Stress-elongation behavior of polymers. Curve 1 glassy or crystalline polymer. Curve 2 rubber or amorphous polymer.

The cross-linked polymers are usually substantially stronger than corresponding linear products, however their strengths fall far short of the hypothetical 2,000,000 psi. Linear polymers break by overcoming the intermolecular attractive forces and possibly to some extent by the rupture of primary bonds. Cross-linked polymers break by the latter process. In both cases the break probably starts at a fault in the sample.

**Elasticity** There is a profound difference in the elasticity of rubbers of hard brittle plastics and of strong partially crystalline fiber. When rubber is stretched the flexible coiling segments between the cross links are straightened. On release of the stretching tension the segments resume their random coiling condition. An increase in temperature increases the freedom of the segment to seek their random condition and thereby increases the restoring force for a particular elongation. In crystalline solids and in polymeric glasses and fibers at temperatures below their glass points the elasticity of the Hookean type is small and is due to the bending of bonds. On increasing the temperature the restoring force is lessened. On extension of polymeric material both rubberlike and Hookean elasticity may be present and there may be some cold flow or permanent slippage of the molecule. On release of the external force there may be an immediate recovery of the Hookean deformation and some of the rubberlike deformation (in cases in which free coiling and uncoiling of the segments is impeded by polar groups) and nonrecovery of the deformation due to slippage of the molecules or cold flow.

The term elastic memory applies to cases in which a polymer is deformed at an elevated temperature as in shaping of a heated chain and then is cooled before the tangled chain has reached an equilibrium condition in the new shape. Strains are said to be frozen in and at a later time, especially if the product is warmed, the strain will cause the product to assume a distorted shape.

**Compounding** Plastic materials, rubber formulations, coatings and other polymeric compounds may contain age inhibitors, strengthening and coloring pigment and plasticizers or softening agents.





the determination of weight average molecular weights up to several million. The light scattering measurement can also yield valuable information regarding the shape of the molecule in solution.

The determination of molecular weight and molecular weight distribution can be accomplished by use of the ultracentrifuge in which the rates of settling of particles in intense centrifugal fields are measured.

The intrinsic viscosity of a polymer in solution (the viscosity which the unassociated polymer molecule gives to the solution) is a function of the molecular weight and is very easily measured. Intrinsic viscosity is commonly used for control purposes and the values can be converted into molecular weight by calibration with osmotic pressure, light scattering or sedimentation molecular weight measurements.

The second order transition temperature is a time-dependent function. Normally it is measured by noting the temperature at which the slope of a flexibility temperature curve changes abruptly. See COLLOID FIBER MAN-MADE POLYMER POLYMERIZATION SCATTERING (ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION) ULTRACENTRIFUGE [J A M L M H]

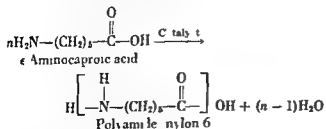
## Polymera

A division of the phylum Vermes proposed by O. Butcher in 1910 with the rank of a subphylum. The Polymera are equivalent to the phylum Annelida. The Amera and Oligomera are the other subdivisions of the Vermes which were recognized. See AMERA OLIGOMERA [C B C]

## Polymerization

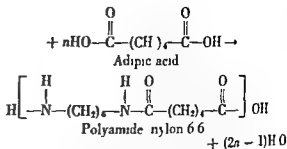
The linking of small molecules (monomers) to make larger molecules. Polymerization requires that each small molecule have at least two reaction points or functional groups. There are two distinct types of polymerization processes: the condensation polymerization in which the chain growth is accompanied by elimination of small molecules such as  $H_2O$  or  $CH_3OH$  and addition polymerization in which the polymer is formed without the loss of other materials.

An example of the condensation process is the reaction of  $\epsilon$ -aminocaproic acid in the presence of a catalyst to form the polyamide nylon 6.



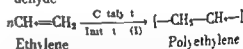
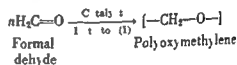
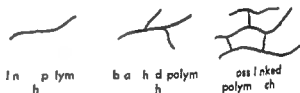
The repeating structural unit is equivalent to the starting material minus  $H$  and  $OH$  the elements of water. A similar product would be obtained by the reaction of a diamine and a dicarboxylic acid. In both cases the molecules formed are linear because the total functionality of the reaction system

$nH_2N-(CH_2)_6-NH_2$   
Hexamethylene diamine



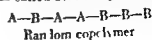
(functional groups per molecule) is always two. However if a trifunctional material such as a tri-carboxylic acid were added to the nylon 66 polymerizing mixture a branched polymeric structure could result because two of the carboxylic groups would participate in one polymer chain and the third carboxylic group would start the growth of another. At high conversion the chains could become bridges between linear chains and the polymer would then be cross-linked.

Some examples of addition polymerization are

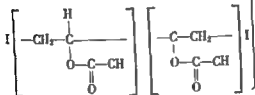
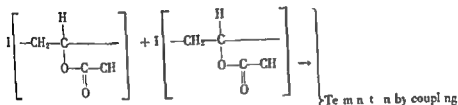
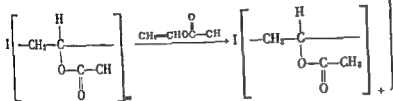
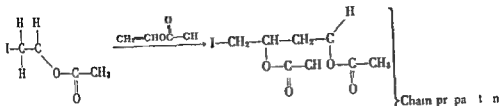
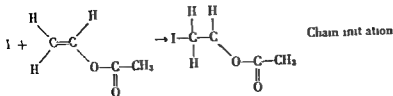


The structure of the repeating unit is the difunctional monomer. In the presence of catalyst or initiators the monomer yields a polymer by the joining together of  $n$  mer links. If  $n$  is a small number 2-10 the products are dimers, trimers, tetramers or oligomers and the materials are usually gases, liquid oils or brittle solids. In most solid polymers  $n$  has values ranging from a few cores to several hundred thousands and the corresponding molecular weights range from a few thousand to several million. The end groups of the two examples of addition polymers are known to be fragments of the initiator.

If only one monomer is polymerized the product is called a homopolymer. The polymerization of a mixture of two monomers of about equal reactivity leads to the formation of a copolymer, a polymer in which the two types of mer units have entered the chain in a random fashion. If chains of one homopolymer are chemically joined to chains of another the product is called block or graft copolymer.



Pro de I F e r d e l f o m a t n



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t i e s W h p l r l e t l e c t h y t d d  
t o t h e l l d l p t h p l y m g l t  
a d t a n b p t d n d r i e d I n d t p  
d p o l m m l n w h c h h t h e d d  
m e c h a l a n d t h m l t b i l i t y t f r e q u e n t l y  
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a meaningless term since its value would depend upon the amount of material present.

The end groups of the polymer molecules are the functional groups that have not reacted at any stage. It is apparent that at exactly 100% conversion in a difunctional condensation the reaction system would consist of only one molecule. The fact that the end group of a condensation polymer can always undergo further reaction creates a difficulty in the high temperature melt pinning of polyamides and polyester. To prevent subsequent changes in molecular weight such a might occur in the melt during spinning at elevated temperatures a monoacid or monoalcohol (molecular weight modifier) is added to the original polymerization mixture. The excess of hydroxyl group, for example, places a limit on the chain growth. That limit is reached when all the acid groups have reacted and all the end groups are hydroxyl. See CONDENSATION REACTION.

### ADDITION POLYMERIZATION

Unsaturated compounds such as olefins and dienes polymerize without the elimination of other products. The molecular weight and structure of the polymer are determined by the reaction conditions that is, the nature of the catalyst or initiator, the temperature and the concentration of reactants, monomer, initiator and modifying agents. The unique feature of addition polymerization is the fact that the average chain length of the polymer formed initially is high and may increase further through secondary branching reactions as the polymerization approaches completion.

The molecular weight range for many useful addition polymers is relatively high, typically from 20,000 to several million, as compared with the molecular weight range of 5,000-30,000 for typical condensation polymers.

The types of catalysis or initiation which are effective for addition polymerization may be identified in four groups: (1) free radical catalysis by peroxides, persulfate, azo compounds, oxygen and ultraviolet and other radiation; (2) acid catalysis by the Lewis acids such as boron trifluoride, sulfuric acid, aluminum chloride and other Friedel-Crafts agents; (3) basic catalysis by alkali metals and metallic alkyls; and (4) heterogeneous catalysis by chromic oxide, silica, alumina, nickel or cobalt on carbon black, molybdenum on alumina and complexes of aluminum alkyls with titanium chloride. The fourth group may be indeed a separate group, however, further information may show that it is simply a new example of one of the other groups or of some combination of them. It is convenient to discuss the mechanism and mechanism I methods of free radical initiation as a new subject and to treat the remaining three types under the heading complex or ionic catalysts.

**Free radical catalysis.** Among the several kinds of polymerization catalysis, free radical initiation has been most thoroughly studied and is most widely employed. Atactic polymers are readily

formed by free radical polymerization of vinyl and diene monomer and some of their derivatives.

At an appropriate temperature a peroxide decomposes to yield free radicals. In the presence of a monomer the greater proportion of the radicals adds to the monomer and thereby initiate chain growth. The growing chains may terminate by coupling by disproportionation or by transfer with monomer, polymer or added material (transfer agents, retarders and inhibitors). Theories of equations on the facing page illustrate the reactions of initiation, propagation and termination by coupling in vinyl acetate.

If transfer occurs with the unreacted monomer or polymer already formed, higher molecular weight branched structures will be produced and if branching is excessive in soluble products may be formed. If the radical produced in the transfer process is not sufficiently active to initiate a new chain the transfer agent is called an inhibitor or a retarder. Mercaptans (RSH), carbon tetrachloride and various organic solvents are examples of transfer agents, whereas amines and phenol are frequently used as inhibitors or retarders.

The rate of free radical polymerization is increased by raising the temperature or increasing the concentration of monomer and initiator. Whereas the molecular weight of the polymer is increased by increasing the monomer concentration by lowering the temperature and by lowering the concentration of initiator and transfer agents.

**Polymerization processes.** The bulk process consists of polymerization of the pure monomer in liquid form. On initiation by heat or light or very small amounts of azobisisobutyronitrile, a very pure polymer can be formed. The monomer and polymer are poor heat conductors; therefore the temperature of bulk polymerization is difficult to control. A further disadvantage is that small quantities of unreacted monomer are difficult to remove from the polymer. Polymerization in solution offers a means of carrying out the polymerization at lower monomer concentrations. Because solvents frequently act as transfer agent, polymerization in solution generally leads to the formation of lower molecular weight products.

Polymerization in aqueous emulsion has the advantages of giving a high rate of polymerization, a high molecular weight and ease of temperature control. A liquid monomer is emulsified in water by means of a surface active agent such as soap. The soap micelle provides the polymerization centers. The free radicals (from a water soluble initiator) diffuse into the soap micelle in which they react to form relatively linear polymer of high molecular weight. The polymer particle of small diameter (500-1500 Å) are in stable suspension because the soap of the original micelle remains adsorbed in the outer layer of the polymer particle. The rate of emulsion polymerization and the molecular weight of the polymer increase with increasing number of micelle particles per unit volume. The product is a

ACID AND BASE ADDITION REACTION CATALY  
S CHAIN REACTION CHEMICAL FIBER MAN  
N DE FREE RADICAL INHIBITOR (CHEMICAL) KI  
ETICS (CHEMICAL) ORGANIC REACTION MECHA  
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TION POLYMER POLYMER PROPERTIES

[JAM LMIH]

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# Polymorphism (crystallography)

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## Polymyxin

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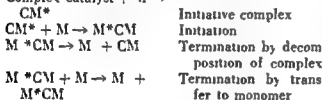
P r e s e ( + ) b a c ( - ) f d m l

pure polymer in bulk polymerization is combined with the ease of temperature control in the aqueous emulsion polymerization. There is the additional advantage that the product of suspension polymerization can be easily isolated for use.

**Complex or ionic catalysis.** Some polymerizations can be initiated by material often called ionic catalysts that contain highly polar reactive sites or complexes. The term heterogeneous catalyst is also applied to these materials because nearly all the catalyst systems are insoluble in monomers and other solvents. These polymerizations are usually carried out in solution from which the polymer can be obtained by evaporation of the solvent or by precipitation on the addition of a nonsolvent.

A general mechanism is shown in the following equations in which the growing chain is represented as an activated complex with the complex catalyst without attempting to specify whether separate ions or free radicals are involved.

Complex catalyst + M →

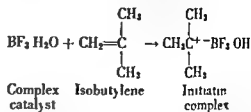


The distinguishing feature of complex catalysts is the ability of a few representatives of each type to initiate stereoregular polymerization or to cause the formation of polymers which can be crystallized. The polymerization process is visualized as the formation of an activated complex of the monomer with the complex catalyst. For stereoregular growth to take place the entering monomer must collide with the complex and be adsorbed in an oriented fashion. As reaction takes place the new monomer assumes an activated condition within the complex catalyst and at the same time pushes the old monomer unit out. Chain growth is therefore similar to the growth of a hair from the skin.

The effect of conditions on rates of polymerization and on molecular size and structure is not yet fully understood. In general the rate of polymerization is proportional to the concentrations of complex catalyst and monomer. The effect of temperature on the rate depends upon the stability and activity of the complex catalyst at the temperature under consideration. If the complex catalyst decomposes on increasing the temperature then the rate of polymerization will be reduced. The effect of temperature upon molecular weight also depends upon the stability of the complex catalyst and upon the relative rates of propagation and termination. In some cases at an optimum temperature of polymerization the molecular weight depends upon the product of the ratio of the rate of propagation to termination and the monomer concentration and in other cases only upon that ratio of rate.

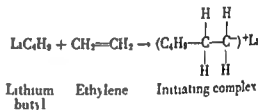
Examples of polymerization with the different types of complex catalysts are briefly described in the following paragraphs.

**Lewis acids.** Carbonium ion catalysts such as  $\text{BF}_3$ ,  $\text{AlCl}_3$  or  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  usually require the presence of a promoter such as  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  or  $\text{HCl}$ .

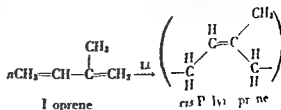
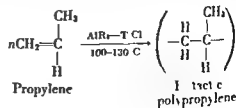


It has been suggested that the point of chain growth is a carbonium (positive) ion although it is not contended that the ion necessarily has more than a transitory existence. Polymerization in the presence of Lewis acids takes place very rapidly at low temperatures  $-100$  to  $-80^\circ\text{C}$ . The order of reactivity of some olefins in Lewis acid catalysis is vinyl ethers > isobutylene >  $\alpha$ -methyl styrene > isoprene > styrene > butadiene.

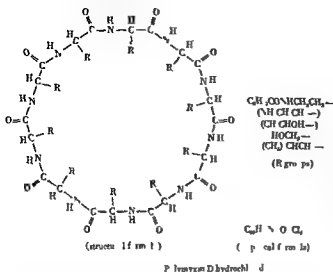
**Alkali metals and metallic alkyls.** Carbanion catalysts such as sodium, lithium and lithium butyl function at moderate temperatures  $25$ – $150^\circ\text{C}$ . Inert hydrocarbon or other solvents are generally used as reaction media.



It has been suggested that at the point of chain growth is a negative or anionic center although not necessarily a separate ion. The order of reactivity of some monomers in carbanion or anionic polymerization is acrylonitrile > methyl acrylonitrile > methyl methacrylate > styrene > butadiene. Heterogeneous catalysts (certain heavy metals or metalloids on supports and complexes of aluminum alkyls with titanium chloride) function at moderate to high temperatures  $50$ – $220^\circ\text{C}$ . Inert hydrocarbon or other solvents are generally used as reaction media. The catalysts may be used in a fixed bed or as a slurry. Two examples are shown.







**Toxicity** The least toxic member of the family is polymyxin B. However, administration of type II to humans via the parenteral route is not advisable unless a serious infection by a polymyxin susceptible bacterium has not responded to previous treatment by other chemotherapeutic drugs. The patient must be hospitalized so that possible toxic effects of polymyxin therapy, such as proteinuria or nitrogen retention, may be quickly ascertained. The drug has been formulated into ointments and troches alone and in combination with other antibiotics, and in this manner has been successfully used for topical treatment of various infections.

[R C B E]

**Bibliography** E. Jawetz, *Polymyxin Neomycin Bacitracin Antibiotics*, Monograph 5, 1966, P. H. Ling et al., *Antibiotics derived from Bacillus polymyxa*, *Ann. N.Y. Acad. Sci.* 51(5): 853-1000, 1949.

## Polynomial systems of equations

Systems of mathematical equations of the form

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) &= 0 \\ f_2(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) &= 0 \\ &\vdots \\ f_m(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

Each  $f_i(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  is a sum of terms of the form

$$a_i x_1^{r_1} x_2^{r_2} \dots x_n^{r_n}$$

where the coefficient

$$a_i$$

is a constant or fixed number and the exponent  $r_i$  of the variable  $x_i$  is a nonnegative whole number. An example of such a system in two variables is

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 - xy + y^2 - 1 &= 0 \\ x^2 + xy - 3y^2 - 2x + 2y + 1 &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

The expressions  $f_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  are called polynomials in several variables. The problem posed by system (1) is to find necessary and sufficient conditions that there exist values of the variables  $x_1 = a_1, x_2 = a_2, \dots, x_n = a_n$  which simultaneously satisfy each equation of the system and to

find all such sets of values which are called solutions of the system. In example (2) a complete set of solutions is given by  $x = 1, y = 0, x = 0, y = 1, x = 1, y = 1$  and  $x = -1, y = -1$ .

The equations of system (1) can be written as polynomials in one of the variables, for example  $x_1$ , with coefficients which are polynomials in the remaining variables  $x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$ . If system (1) has a solution then for certain values of the variables  $x_2 = a_2, x_3 = a_3, \dots, x_n = a_n$  the equations of the system as polynomials in  $x_1$  have a common root  $x_1 = a_1$ . The process of finding a condition involving the variable  $x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$  which is both necessary and sufficient for the equation to have a common root  $x_1 = a_1$  is called eliminating  $x_1$  from the equations. In the example (2) it can be shown that if  $x_1$  is eliminated from the equations the condition  $12y(y-1)(y+1) = 0$  is obtained. Corresponding to the values  $y = 0, 1, -1$  which satisfy this condition the four solutions of the system given earlier are obtained.

Example (2) illustrates a system of two polynomial equations which can be written in the form

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= a_m x^m + a_{m-1} x^{m-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 = 0 \\ g(x) &= b_n x^n + b_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + b_1 x + b_0 = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where the coefficients are either constants or polynomials in the variables  $y_2, y_3, \dots, y_n$ .

The resultant of the polynomials  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  of (3) is the following determinant (see DETERMINANT) with elements which are the coefficients of the given polynomials

$$R(f, g) = \begin{vmatrix} a_m & a_{m-1} & \dots & a_1 & a_0 & & \\ & a_m & a_{m-1} & \dots & a_1 & a_0 & \\ & & a_m & a_{m-1} & \dots & a_1 & a_0 \\ & & & a_m & a_{m-1} & \dots & a_1 & a_0 \\ b_n & b_{n-1} & \dots & b_1 & b_0 & & \\ & b_n & b_{n-1} & \dots & b_1 & b_0 & \\ & & b_n & b_{n-1} & \dots & b_1 & b_0 \end{vmatrix}$$

where it is understood that the blank spaces should be filled with zeros. The resultant in this form is called Sylvester's determinant. It can be proved that the condition  $R(f, g) = 0$  is both necessary and sufficient for  $f(x) = 0$  and  $g(x) = 0$  to have a common root  $x = a$  provided not both  $a = 0$  and  $b_n = 0$ . In the example (2)

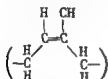
$$R(f, g) = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -y & y^2 - 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -y & y^2 - 1 \\ 1 & y - 2 & -3y^2 + 2y + 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & y - 2 & -3y^2 + 2y + 1 \end{vmatrix} = 12y(y-1)^2(y+1)$$

It does not matter in which order the polynomials  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are taken as it can be shown that  $R(g, f) = (-1)^m R(f, g)$ . Let  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_m$  be the roots of  $f(x) = 0$  and  $s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n$  be the roots of  $g(x) = 0$ . The resultant can be written in the following factored form

The high melt polymers are the subject of considerable interest because relatively few the plastic polymers are available which have high melting temperatures and at the same time be easily fabricated.

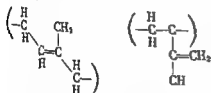
Polydienes like diene isoprene and 2-chlorobutadiene have the wide use of dielectric material in the polymer field. Butadiene and 2-chlorobutadiene have long been used in the production of synthetic rubbers by free-radical catalysis. The copolymer structure has long been recognized to correspond to the repeating unit in natural rubber (KURITA).

Specific properties of catalysts are useful in the polymerization of butadiene and isoprene. Natural rubber is largely cis polyisoprene.



is Polyisoprene

characterized by helicality and low crystallinity. The polymers formed by free-radical catalysis contain both cis and trans forms together in about 12-34 percent molar ratio.



trans Polyisoprene

1 Polyisoprene



34 Polyisoprene

The properties of the 12-34 percent cis-trans copolymer of the rubbery helicality and high crystallinity are nonflexible.

The application of these properties in the polymerization of polyisoprene and butadiene has led to the development of synthetic rubbers which contain high proportions of the cis-trans and helicality content in the polymer.

1,3-BUTADIENE DIENE ISOPRENE PLASTICS FABRIC POLYMERIZATION [JAM. L.M.H.]

### Polyoxyethylation of alcohol

The process of esterification of alcohols with ethylene glycol to produce polyethers. The polyethers are produced by the reaction of ethylene glycol with alcohols in the presence of an acid catalyst.

have the formula  $R-O-[CH_2-CH_2-O]_nH$  in which  $n$  represents an integer from 1 to 20 and  $R$  represents the alkyl residue of the alcohol  $ROH$ .

Although polyoxyethylation of alcohols is formally a polymerization reaction, the products are not thermally stable molecules but are characterized by high polymers obtained for example by the polymerization of organic monomers. In fact a special useful class of compounds in which  $n=1$  in the above formula can be obtained by varying the reaction conditions. This process is known as hydroxyethylation of alcohols. As usual, however, the products are low molecular weight polyethers; the molecular weight range of 200-1000. See POLYMERIZATION.

Polyoxyethylation of alcohols is accomplished by heating the alcohol and ethylene glycol in the presence of a catalyst. The compound is then distilled under reduced pressure. The molecular weight and structure of the product are determined by the amount and kind of catalyst used and temperature of reaction and molar ratio of ethylene glycol to alcohol. Generally, the higher molecular weight polymer is obtained. The reaction is limited to primary and secondary alcohols.

The polyethers are the only liquids which melt at very low temperatures and are soluble in water and most organic solvents. They are effective water-soluble lubricants and antifreeze. The formulae for some of the polyethers are as follows: Polyethylene Glycol, Polypropylene Glycol, Polybutylene Glycol, Polymethylene Glycol, etc. The reaction is reversible.

The yield of the reaction is high (90-95%) and the products are of high purity. The molecular weight of the products is determined by the reaction conditions. The products are used in a wide variety of applications. [D.L.H.]

### Polyplacophora

Another name for the Loricata of the phylum Amphipoda. The mollusks are usually divided into the bivalves, the gastropods, and the nautilus. The bivalves are the most common and the nautilus is the most highly developed. The gastropods are the most diverse and the nautilus is the most specialized. The bivalves are the most common and the nautilus is the most specialized. The gastropods are the most diverse and the nautilus is the most specialized. The bivalves are the most common and the nautilus is the most specialized. The gastropods are the most diverse and the nautilus is the most specialized. [C.B.C.]

### Polyplody

The process of fission of a single chromosome into multiple chromosomes.

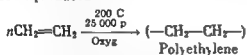


and stress cracking and higher temperatures and pressures are needed for molding

Polyethylene is produced in very large volume. The major uses are as packaging films, container molded articles, electrical insulation, wire coating and pipe.

Ethylene is produced on a large scale by the cracking of aliphatic hydrocarbons found in petroleum. The monomer can be conveniently produced in smaller volumes by the catalytic dehydration of ethanol.

The low and medium density polymers are formed by the polymerization of highly purified ethylene at about 150–250 C and 20 000–35 000 psi in the presence of a very small amount of oxygen or organic peroxide. At the higher temperatures the low density polymer is formed and at the lower reaction temperatures the medium density product is produced.



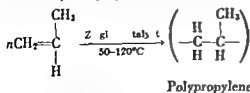
The high density polymers are formed at relatively low temperatures and pressures (for example 50–150 C and 100–2000 psi) in the presence of special catalysts, often referred to as stereospecific catalysts. These include oxidized forms of certain heavy metals such as chromium, reduced forms of heavy metals such as cobalt and nickel, and the Ziegler catalyst, a complex of an aluminum alkyl and a titanium chloride.

For the low density material the softening temperature and the maximum temperature for continuous use are about 105–115 C and 75 C respectively. The corresponding temperatures for the high density product are some 25–40 C higher.

Structural studies have shown that the higher density polymers have highly linear structures and are approximately 85–95% crystalline. The lower density materials are branched and are 50–85% crystalline. See ETHYLENE.

**Polypropylene** High molecular weight isotactic highly crystalline polypropylene is generally similar in properties to high density polyethylene. In comparison with the latter, isotactic polypropylene is harder and stronger and softens at about 160 C.

Propylene is available in large quantities from the cracking of petroleum hydrocarbons and the high molecular weight isotactic polymers are formed in the presence of the stereospecific catalyst used in the ethylene polymerization.



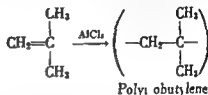
The crystalline product has been recently introduced and should have many uses for molded objects, film, and fibers.

The low molecular weight polypropylene oils formed in the presence of acid catalyst such as

boron trifluoride or phosphoric acid are useful in the manufacture of gasoline and synthetic detergents but are not employed in plastics technology. See PROPYLENE.

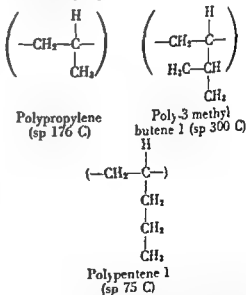
**Polyisobutylene** The polyisobutylene polymers vary in properties from low molecular weight oils to high molecular weight rubbery solids.

The monomer obtained by cracking petroleum hydrocarbons readily polymerizes in the presence of acid catalysts such as boron trifluoride, aluminum chloride or tin (IV) tetrachloride.



Polymerization conducted at 0–25 C yields oils which are useful in calking and sealing compositions. At low temperatures such as –100 to –80 C rubbery solids are formed. The solid is also useful in calking compositions and adhesive formulations, however the main use of polyisobutylene is in the form of the copolymer with 2–4% isoprene. The copolymer known as butyl rubber can be prepared at –90 C in the presence of methyl chloride as a diluent and aluminum chloride as the catalyst. The product distinguished by its impermeability to gases and its resistance to aging is used in automobile tires and tubes.

**Polymers of other 1-olefins** The discovery of the stereospecific catalysts suited for ethylene polymerization has made possible the formation of high molecular weight isotactic crystalline polymers of other 1-olefins such as 1-butene, 1-octene and 1-dodecene. The softening temperature (p) of the crystalline isotactic polymers of some of the 1-olefins are relatively high.

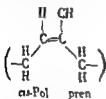


The high melting points of certain of the isotactic crystalline polymers may result from peculiar spatial arrangements necessary to accommodate the presence of bulky branched groups near the polymer chain.

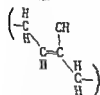
high-molecular polymers are the subject of considerable interest because a relatively few rather large polymers are available which have high melting temperatures and at the same time are stable.

Diene Butadiene is prepared by chlorination of ethylene gas and the widest use of dienes is in the polymer field. Butadiene and chloroprene have long been used in the production of synthetic rubbers by free-radical catalysis. The structure has long been recognized as a copolymer consisting of an isoprene unit and a butadiene unit.

Isoprene is a specific catalyst as shown in the polymerization of butadiene and isoprene. The catalyst is largely a cis polymer.



The action is based on high molecular weight of the catalyst. The polymer is a copolymer of butadiene and isoprene by free-radical catalysis. The structure is a copolymer of butadiene and isoprene.



Butadiene Polymer 1,3-Polyisoprene



3,4-Polyisoprene

The polymer is a copolymer of butadiene and isoprene. The structure is a copolymer of butadiene and isoprene.

The polymer is a copolymer of butadiene and isoprene. The structure is a copolymer of butadiene and isoprene.

### Polyoxyethylation of alcohol

The process of effecting reaction of alcohol with ethylene oxide to produce polyether. The polymer is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol.

has the formula  $R-O-(CH_2-CH_2-O)_nH$  in which  $n$  represents an integer from 1 to 10 and  $R$  represents the alkyl residue of the alcohol  $ROH$ .

Although polyoxyethylation of alcohols is a small polymerization reaction, the products are not of the extremely high molecular weight that is characteristic of the high polymer butadiene copolymer. In fact a peculiar kind of film can be produced by the polymerization of ethylene oxide. In fact a peculiar kind of film can be produced by the polymerization of ethylene oxide. In fact a peculiar kind of film can be produced by the polymerization of ethylene oxide.

The process is known as hydroxylation of alcohol. A similar process is used in the production of low molecular weight polyether in the molecular weight range of 100-1000. The polymerization of ethylene oxide with alcohol is a simple process. The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol. The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol.

The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol. The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol. The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol. The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol. The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol.

The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol. The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol. The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol. The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol. The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol.

### Polyplacophora

A radical with the formula  $CH_2=CH-O-$  is used in the synthesis of polyplacophora. The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol. The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol. The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol. The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol. The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol.

### Polyplidy

The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol. The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol. The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol. The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol. The product is a copolymer of ethylene oxide and alcohol.

chromosomes are triploids 4x tetraploids 5x pentaploids and on Autopolyploids are forms derived by the multiplication of chromosomes from a single diploid organism As a result the homologous chromosomes come from the same source These are distinguished from allopolyploids which are forms derived from a hybrid between two diploid organisms As a result the homologous chromosomes come from different sources About one third of the species of vascular plants have originated at least partly by polyploidy and as many more appear to have ancestries which involve ancient occurrences of polyploidy The condition can be induced artificially with the drug colchicine and the production of polyploid individuals has become a valuable tool for plant breeding

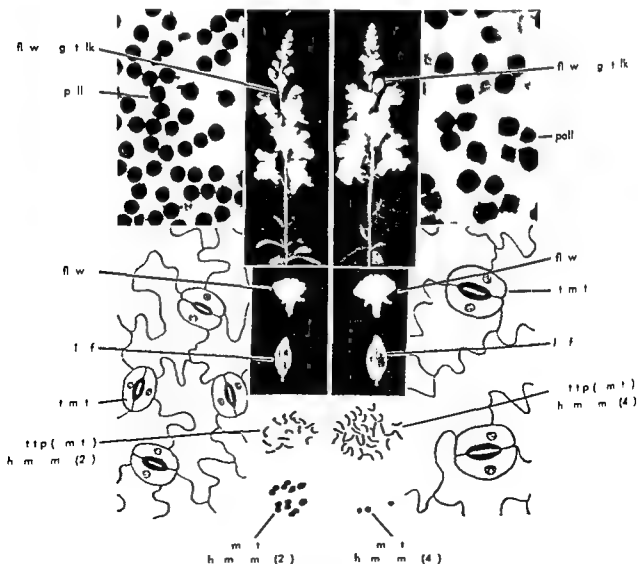
Polyploid series are irregularly distributed through the plant kingdom They are particularly common in some families notably the Gramineae and Rosaceae and are rare in others such as the Fagaceae and Umbelliferae Not infrequently there exist related genera of the same family one with and one without polyploidy such as *Thalictrum* and *Aquilegia* of the family Ranunculaceae

or *Salix* and *Populus* of the family Salicaceae Polyploidy has a significantly higher frequency in perennial herbs than in annual herbs and woody plants A polyploid series often cited is that of the wheats in which the basic chromosome number is 7 and somatic chromosome numbers of 14 28 and 42 occur

In animals undoubted examples of polyploidy are confined to groups which are parthenogenetic such as crustaceans of the genus *Artemia* certain earthworms weevils of the family Curculionidae moths of the genus *Solenobia* and sawflies of the genus *Diprion* or which produce asexually by fission as the flatworm *Dendrocoelum infernale* A partial explanation of this situation is that in many animals the sex chromosome mechanism is upset by polyploidy that sterile intersexes are produced Because hybrid sterility in animals is usually genic rather than chromosomal in nature and is not eliminated by chromosome doubling allopolyploids can occur only rarely Genic hybrid sterility as in the mule is the result of genes contributed by the parents interacting in the hybrid to disturb the course of meiosis and sex cell

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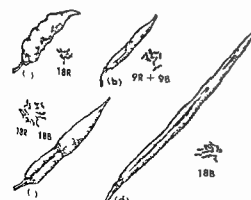


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l u l a t ) t b d w t a d f e t a c f b h t

t b c m d b l k h a k d e m f m w l d

p e f v t i (V g l t i V p l m b a g

j l ) t l t t e d t b a P l p l d y t h e

f f l t l p l n t b e e d g w h e n m b d

w h h b r d z a t d l e c t m S B R E F O R G

(p l 4 ) G E E G E T I C S P L A N T E V O L U T I O N

S P E C I A T I O N [C L S]

B b l g p h y B k h a N t l L a b o r a t o r y

G t s i n P l a t B d g B k h S y m p t i a

n B l 9 1956 G L S t e b b l t d

E l t P l t 1950

Polypterisformes

A d t c h e d f a t i o p t r y g n f i h e a l



Bichir *Polypterus dichir* length to 3 ft (After G. A. Boulenger, *Catalogue of the Fresh Water Fishes of Africa in the British Museum*, vol. I, 1909)

cally heterocercal with the upper part continuous with the dorsal fin a dorsal series of free spine like finlet each supported by a radial a distinctive pectoral fin base with three enlarged radials paired gular plates paired ventral lungs and a very large opisthotic

This order consists of a single family the Polypteridae that is known from the Eocene (Cretaceous?) The two recent genera *Polypterus* with about 10 species and *Calamochthys* with 1 species are confined to fresh waters of tropical Africa Bichirs were long classified with Crossopterygians but they are now believed to be modern descendants of early palaeonisciform actinopterygians See ACTINOPTERYGII [RMB]

## Polysaccharide

A class of high molecular weight carbohydrates colloidal complexes which break down on hydrolysis to monosaccharides containing five or six carbon atoms The polysaccharides are considered to be polymers in which monosaccharides have been glycosidically joined with the elimination of water A polysaccharide consisting of hexose monosaccharide units may be represented by the following empirical equation



The term polysaccharide is limited to those polymers which contain 10 or more monosaccharide residue Polysaccharide such as starch glycogen and dextran consist of several thousand D glucose units Polymers of relatively low molecular weight consisting of two to nine monosaccharide residues are referred to as oligosaccharide See DEXTRAN GLUCOSE GLYCOSYL MONOSACCHARIDE STARCH

Polysaccharides are either insoluble in water or when soluble form colloidal solutions They are mostly amorphous substances However x-ray analysis indicates that a few of them such as cellulose and chitin possess a definite crystalline structure As a class polysaccharides are nonfermentable and are nonreducing except for a trace of reducing power due presumably to the free reducing group at the end of a chain They are optically active but do not exhibit mutarotation and are relatively stable in alkali See CELLULOSE CHITIN OPTICAL ACTIVITY

The polysaccharides serve either as reserve nutrient (glycogen inulin) or as skeletal material (cellulose chitin) from which relatively rigid mechanical structures are built Some polysaccharides such as certain galactans and mannan however serve both functions Through the action of acids

graded to their constituent monosaccharide units Some polysaccharides yield only simple sugars on hydrolysis others yield only sugars but also various sugar derivatives such as D-glucuronic acid or galacturonic acid (known generally as uronic acids) hexoamines and even non-sugar compounds such as acetic acid and sulfuric acid

The constituent units of the polysaccharide molecule are arranged in the form of a long chain either unbranched as in cellulose and amylose or branched as in amylopectin and glycogen The linkage between the monosaccharide units is generally the 1-4 or 1-6 glycosidic bond with either the  $\alpha$  or  $\beta$  configuration as the case may be The branched glycogen and amylopectin contain both the 1-4 and 1-6 linkages However other types of linkage are known In plant gum and mucilage polysaccharides 1-3, 1-5 and 1-6 linkages occur more commonly than the 1-4 type

In an attempt to systematize the carbohydrate nomenclature the generic name glycan was introduced as synonymous with the term polysaccharide This term is evolved from the generic word glycos meaning a simple sugar and the ending -an signifying a sugar polymer Example of established usage of the -an ending are xylan for polymers of xylose mannan for polymers of mannose and galactomannan for galactose-mannose copolymers Cellulose and starch are both glycans or glucoglycans since they are composed of glucose units

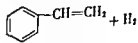
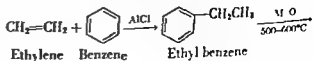
Polysaccharides are often classified on the basis of the number of monosaccharide types present in the molecule Polysaccharides such as cellulose or starch that produce only one monosaccharide type (D-glucose) on complete hydrolysis are termed homopolysaccharides On the other hand polysaccharides such as hyaluronic acid which produce on hydrolysis more than one monosaccharide type (Acetylglucosamine and D-glucuronic acid) are named heteropolysaccharides See CARBOHYDRATE [WJH]

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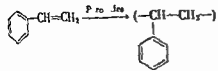
## Polystyrene resin

A hard transparent glass-like thermoplastic resin Polystyrene is characterized by excellent electrical insulation properties relatively high resistance to water high refractive index and low softening temperature

Styrene is produced by the dehydrogenation of ethyl benzene which in turn is obtained by the alkylation of benzene with ethylene



Free radical catalysts such as peroxides are then used for polymerization and copolymerization in bulk solution and in aqueous emulsion and suspension.



The high molecular weight homopolymer is a plastic material and is used in many applications. For example, it is used in the production of styrene-butadiene copolymers.

The copolymer of styrene and butadiene was the first synthetic rubber of World War II. During the 1940s, the red system of polymerization was developed in which the presence of a red pigment caused the peroxide to yield free radicals rapidly at lower temperatures. At the low temperature, the red system polymerized to a rubber with improved physical properties. This is the case with improved physical properties of the red system polymers.

Styrene-butadiene copolymers (containing about 50% styrene) are rather tough rubbers. They are produced by emulsion polymerization and have achieved widespread use in water-based paints.

By solution of the copolymer of styrene and butadiene in an insoluble polymer, a product is produced. This product is then used in the production of a plastic material.

The first of these plastics are the styrene-butadiene copolymers. These are the first of the plastics to be produced by emulsion polymerization. The polybutadiene may be compared with the styrene-butadiene copolymer.

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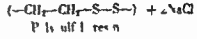
For use such as liners for refrigerators, etc. See PLASTIC FABRICATION RUBBER STYRENE [JAM LCH]

## Polythiophene resins

Resins that are in properties for many applications and for the use of organic polythiophene resins are prepared by the condensation of organic dihalide with a polythiophene.



1,2-dichloroethane + Sodium trisulfide



By the use of a thiol and a dihalide (chloroethyl) ether  $\text{ClCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}$  the properties may be adjusted. The reaction is usually conducted in an aqueous medium from which the product may be separated and dried. Many of the polythiophene resins are used in the manufacture of a variety of plastic materials.

The linear polymers can be linked and cured by reaction with zinc oxide. Compound and salt reaction of the rubbery polymers can be handled in the same manner as rubber machinery. The polythiophene resins are used in the manufacture of a variety of plastic materials. The polymers are related to the impurities in the product. The product is used to form chemically resistant materials and plastic materials such as glassine.

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## Polytopes regular

The number of regular polytopes in  $n$  dimensions is given by the formula  $(n-2)(n-3)/2$ . For example, in 3 dimensions there are 5 regular polytopes (tetrahedron, cube, octahedron, dodecahedron, and icosahedron). In 4 dimensions there are 6 regular polytopes (simplex, cube, octahedron, dodecahedron, and icosahedron). In 5 dimensions there are 3 regular polytopes (simplex, cube, and octahedron). In 6 dimensions there are 2 regular polytopes (simplex and cube). In 7 dimensions there is 1 regular polytope (simplex).

$$(p-2)(q-2) < 4$$

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Polytope	Schläfli symbol	Vertices	Edges	Faces	Solid cells	Hypersolid cell
$n =$ $p$ gon	$\{p\}$	$p$	$p$			
$n = 3$						
tetrahedron	$\{3\ 3\}$	4	6	4		
cube	$\{4\ 3\}$	8	12	6		
octahedron	$\{3\ 4\}$	6	12	8		
dodecahedron	$\{5\ 3\}$	20	30	12		
icosahedron	$\{3\ 5\}$	12	30	20		
$n = 4$						
5-cell	$\{3\ 3\ 3\}$	5	10	10	5	
8-cell	$\{4\ 3\ 3\}$	16	32	24	8	
16-cell	$\{3\ 3\ 4\}$	8	16	16	16	
24-cell	$\{3\ 4\ 3\}$	24	96	96	24	
120-cell	$\{5\ 3\ 3\}$	600	1200	720	120	
600-cell	$\{3\ 3\ 5\}$	120	720	1440	600	
$n > 4$						
simplex	$\{3\ 3\ \dots\ 3\}$	$n + 1$	$\frac{1}{2}n(n + 1)$			$n + 1$
hypercube	$\{4\ 3\ \dots\ 3\}$	$2^n$	$n \cdot 2^{n-1}$			$n$
cross polytope	$\{3\ \dots\ 3\ 4\}$	$2^n$	$2n(n - 1)$			

closed by a finite number of hyperplanes. When any redundant hyperplanes have been discarded, the  $n$ -cell that remains contains  $(n - 1)$  dimensional polytopes called cells. For instance, the cells of a polygon are its sides; those of a polyhedron are its faces; and those of a 4-dimensional polytope are solid cells.

The platonic solid  $\{p\ q\ r\}$  is said to be regular because its faces are regular and its vertices are all surrounded alike. The 4-dimensional regular polytope  $\{p\ q\ r\}$  has 3-dimensional solid cells  $\{p\ q\ r\}$  of which surround each edge the 5-dimensional

regular polytope  $\{p\ q\ r\ s\}$  has cells  $\{p\ q\ r\ s\}$  of which surround each plane face and so on.

The six regular 4-dimensional polytopes  $\{p\ q\ r\}$  are determined by the inequality

$$p - \frac{4}{p} + 2q + r - \frac{4}{r} < 12$$

The 5-cell  $\{3\ 3\ 3\}$  may be drawn in perspective as a pentagon with its 5 diagonals, though in reality its 10 edges are all equal. The simplest drawing of the 8-cell  $\{4\ 3\ 3\}$  consists of an octagon with a square placed inward on each side. The square on two alternate sides are easily visualized as two opposite faces of a cube. The 8 such cubes are the cells of the 8-cell.

The regular tetrahedron can be inscribed in the cube in the sense that the 4 vertices of the former occur among the 8 vertices of the latter. In the same sense the cube can be inscribed in the dodecahedron, the 16-cell in the 8-cell, the 8-cell in the 24-cell, the 24-cell in the 600-cell, the 600-cell (and also the 5-cell) in the 120-cell.

The vertices of the  $n$ -dimensional simplex  $\{3\ 3\ \dots\ 3\}$  consists of  $n + 1$  points all equidistant from one another. Those of the cross polytope  $\{3\ 3\ 4\}$  are at equal distances from the origin in both directions along the  $n$  coordinate axes; their coordinates (for a cross polytope of edge  $\sqrt{2}$ ) are the permutations of  $(\pm 1\ 0\ \dots\ 0)$ . Similarly, the 2 vertices of the hypercube  $\{4\ 3\ \dots\ 3\}$  of edge  $\sqrt{2}$  are  $(\pm 1\ \pm 1\ \dots\ \pm 1)$ . See ANALYTIC GEOMETRY, GEOMETRY, EUCLIDEAN.

**Bibliography** H. S. M. Coxeter, *Regular Polytopes*, 1948; D. Hilbert and S. Cohn-Vossen, *Geometry and the Imagination*, 1924; H. P. Manning, *Geometry of Four Dimensions*, reprint 1955.

## Polytropic process

An expansion (or contraction) of a gas during which the heat enters (or leaves) the system is not enough to maintain a constant temperature.

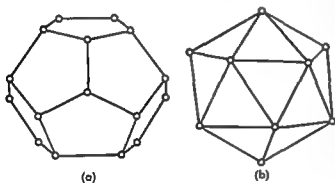


Fig. 1. Two regular polyhedrons: (a) Dodecahedron  $\{5\ 3\}$ ; (b) Icosahedron  $\{3\ 5\}$ .

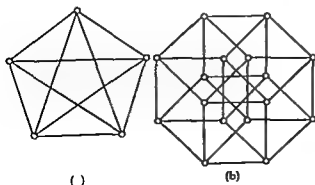


Fig. 2. Two regular 4-dimensional polytopes: (a) The 5-cell  $\{3\ 3\ 3\}$ ; (b) The 8-cell  $\{4\ 3\ 3\}$ .

During the polytropic expansion of a gas, external work is done both at the expense of the decrease in internal energy of the system and at the expense of the heat transferred to the system from the surroundings. The polytropic process is compared to other thermodynamic processes with the aid of a  $p-v$  diagram. The polytropic process is characterized by a high pressure and a temperature increase with additional energy provided by the heat transfer. See THERMODYNAMIC PROC.

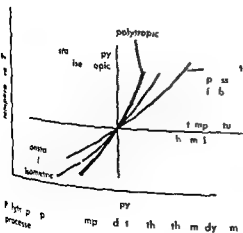
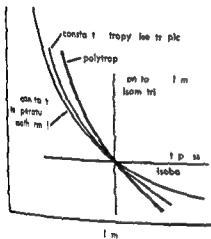
With a reference polytropic expansion, a plotted  $P$  coordinate illustrates the relationship between the pressure and the plotted logarithm of the volume. The usefulness of this relationship is illustrated by the characteristic of the expansion. The

$$P_1 = P_2 = \text{constant}$$

For the isothermal expansion process, the

$$\int P dv = \text{constant} \int \frac{1}{v} dv = \frac{P_1 v_1 - P_2 v_2}{\gamma - 1}$$

For the isothermal expansion process, the absolute pressure is proportional to the reciprocal of the volume. The

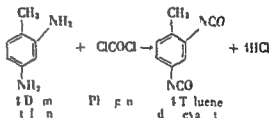


is constant for the process. For a polytropic expansion, the work done is less than the value for an isothermal expansion. The heat added to the gas while expanding is greater than the work done. See ENTROPIC PROC.

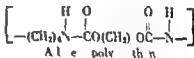
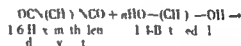
## Polyurethane resins

Resins that are produced in the form of hard glassy, transparent, elastic materials and are resistant to water and other liquids. The resins are characterized by their high strength and their ability to form films. The resins are used in a variety of applications, including coatings, adhesives, and composites. The resins are typically formed by the reaction of isocyanate groups with hydroxyl groups.

The reaction of isocyanate groups with hydroxyl groups is a polycondensation reaction. The reaction is typically catalyzed by organotin compounds. The reaction is exothermic and produces water as a byproduct. The reaction is typically carried out in the presence of a solvent. The reaction is typically carried out at a temperature of 60-100°C. The reaction is typically carried out for a period of 2-4 hours. The reaction is typically carried out in a stirred reactor. The reaction is typically carried out in a nitrogen atmosphere. The reaction is typically carried out in a dry environment. The reaction is typically carried out in a clean environment. The reaction is typically carried out in a controlled environment. The reaction is typically carried out in a safe environment. The reaction is typically carried out in a responsible environment. The reaction is typically carried out in a sustainable environment. The reaction is typically carried out in a green environment. The reaction is typically carried out in a clean environment. The reaction is typically carried out in a safe environment. The reaction is typically carried out in a responsible environment. The reaction is typically carried out in a sustainable environment. The reaction is typically carried out in a green environment.

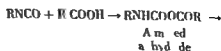
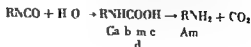


The condensation of 1,6-hexamethylene diamine with 1,4-bis(isocyanato)benzene yields



is typically applied than having a single filter. The filters are generally made of a porous material. The filters are typically made of a synthetic material. The filters are typically made of a natural material. The filters are typically made of a composite material. The filters are typically made of a hybrid material. The filters are typically made of a multi-layered material. The filters are typically made of a high-strength material. The filters are typically made of a low-cost material. The filters are typically made of a durable material. The filters are typically made of a safe material. The filters are typically made of a responsible material. The filters are typically made of a sustainable material. The filters are typically made of a green material. The filters are typically made of a clean material. The filters are typically made of a safe material. The filters are typically made of a responsible material. The filters are typically made of a sustainable material. The filters are typically made of a green material. The filters are typically made of a clean material.

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The amino groups can react with additional isocyanate to form cross linkage. Thus by starting with a polymer having a known quantity of free carboxylic groups as well as free —OH groups or by adding a predetermined quantity of water to the polymer containing free —OH groups, insoluble cross-linked foams of desired density can be prepared. The foamed products can be cast in place around valves or between the walls of jacketed containers to provide mechanical or thermal insulation.

The flexible polyurethanes may be used for coating rubber articles to give them additional resistance to abrasion and solvents. Wire insulated with polyurethane resin can be soldered directly without previously removing the coating because the polymer decomposes at the soldering temperature to yield a clean wire surface. Among the various applications the uses of the foamed products are developing most rapidly because of the ease of varying the density and flexibility and the good resistance to aging and solvents. See PLASTICS FABRICATION POLYMERIZATION URETHANE.

[JAM LMH]

## Polyvinyl resins

Polymeric materials generally considered to include polymers derived from monomers having the structure



in which  $\text{R}_1$  and  $\text{R}_2$  represent hydrogen, alkyl, halogen, or other groups. This article refers to polymers whose name includes the term vinyl. Of the polymers several have been used for a number of years such as polyvinyl chloride, polyvinyl acetate, polyvinylidene chloride, polyvinyl alcohol, polyvinyl acetals, and polyvinyl ether. Indeed the terms vinyls and vinyl resins are frequently used to refer to the first three polymers of this group. Some polyvinyl resins of more recent origin are polyvinyl fluoride, polyvinylpyrrolidone, and polyvinylcar-

bazole. For discussions of other vinyl-type polymers see POLYACRYLATE RESIN, POLYACRYLONITRILE RESIN, POLYFLUOROOLEFIN RESIN, POLYOLEFIN RESINS, POLYSTYRENE RESIN.

Many of the monomers can be prepared by addition of the appropriate compound to acetylene. For example, vinyl chloride, vinyl fluoride, vinyl acetate, and vinyl methyl ether may be formed by the reactions of acetylene with  $\text{HCl}$ ,  $\text{HF}$ ,  $\text{CH}_3\text{COOH}$ , and  $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ , respectively.

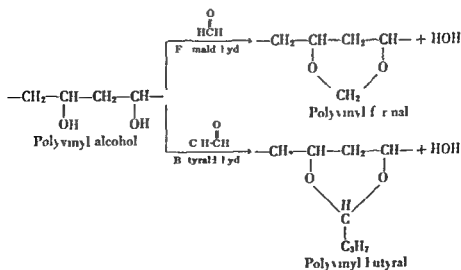
The polyvinyl resins may be characterized as a group of thermoplastics which in many cases are inexpensive and capable of being handled by solution, latex, and injection molding and extrusion techniques. The properties vary depending upon chemical structure, crystallinity, and molecular weight.

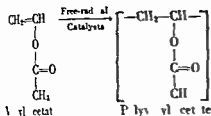
**Polyvinyl acetals.** These are relatively soft water-insoluble thermoplastic products obtained by the reaction of polyvinyl alcohol with aldehydes. Polyvinyl butyral is soft and rubbery and is used primarily as the inner layer and binder for safety glass. Polyvinyl formal is the hardest of the group; it is used in making light-polarizing lenses and film, and to some extent in adhesive and wire-coating formulations.

Polyvinyl butyral is usually obtained by the reaction of butyraldehyde with polyvinyl alcohol. The formal can be produced by the same process but is more conveniently obtained by the reaction of formaldehyde with polyvinyl acetate in acetic acid solution.

**Polyvinyl acetate.** Polyvinyl acetate is a leathery, colorless thermoplastic material which is relatively stable at low temperatures and which is relatively stable to light and oxygen. The polymers are clear and noncrystalline. The chief applications are as adhesives and binders for water-based or emulsion paints.

Polymerization and copolymerization may be conveniently effected by free-radical catalysis in aqueous emulsion and suspension systems. Vinyl acetate copolymerizes readily with various other vinyl monomers, however, it does not copolymerize with styrene by the free-radical process.





A hard solid polymers and copolymer may be added directly to the emulsion and in the emulsion.

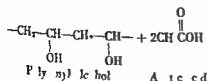
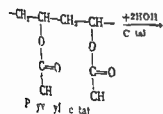
An emulsion is produced by the emulsion polymerization process commonly called polymer emulsion. Latex is used for treating paper, adhesives, and a water-based paint.

The treated paint prepared by polymerizing vinyl acetate polymer and polymer emulsion has a broad wide usage because of low cost and its low cost of application and resistance to water.

Latex emulsion from the latex by evaporation of the suspended polymer particles to form a tough film. The characteristics of the film may be modified by the use of monomers in the monomer ratio or by the addition of plasticizer to the emulsion.

**Polyvinyl alcohol** Polyvinyl alcohol is a tough, tough, and fiber that is highly resistant to water. Although polyvinyl alcohol is a few weight percent polymer, it can be reduced to 1% in water by drawing it by the use of ink.

Polyvinyl alcohol (CH=CHOH) has not been isolated as a solid polymer. The monomer is a liquid that is a colorless, odorless, and tasteless liquid. It is a polymer of the hydroxyethyl polymer.

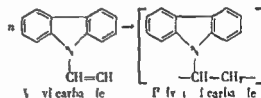


The polymer is a solid, tough, and fiber that is highly resistant to water. It is a polymer of the hydroxyethyl polymer. The polymer is a solid, tough, and fiber that is highly resistant to water. It is a polymer of the hydroxyethyl polymer.

The red in the water-soluble drawing or heat-resistant chemical linkage. On the drawing, the linkage is a strong, stable, and resistant to the action of acids, alkalis, and organic solvents. It is a strong, stable, and resistant to the action of acids, alkalis, and organic solvents. It is a strong, stable, and resistant to the action of acids, alkalis, and organic solvents.

The partially hydrolyzed product are generally more water-soluble and more easily tailored by drawing. These materials are also emulsifying agents and thickening agents in textile finishes.

**Polyvinyl carbazole** Polyvinyl carbazole is a tough, glassy, thermoplastic with excellent electrical properties and thermal stability up to 150°C. It is carried in the liquid form as a solid.



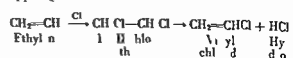
If the product are limited to the electrical applications requiring it to be made by high-temperature.

**Polyvinyl chloride** Polyvinyl chloride is a tough, strong, and resistant to the action of acids, alkalis, and organic solvents. It is a polymer of the hydroxyethyl polymer.

The plasticized type of the polymer or plasticized polymers are the materials which are familiar in the form of herringbone, eraser, and other plastic materials. It is a polymer of the hydroxyethyl polymer.

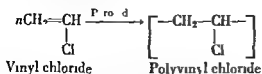
Rigid polyvinyl chloride product which may be a homopolymer, copolymer, or polyblend. The main difference of the physical properties of the homopolymer, copolymer, or polyblend is the difference in the physical properties.

The main difference of the physical properties of the homopolymer, copolymer, or polyblend is the difference in the physical properties. The main difference of the physical properties of the homopolymer, copolymer, or polyblend is the difference in the physical properties.



The polymer is a tough, strong, and resistant to the action of acids, alkalis, and organic solvents. It is a polymer of the hydroxyethyl polymer.

be initiated by peroxides and are conveniently



carried out in the presence of chain transfer agents in aqueous emulsion or suspension systems

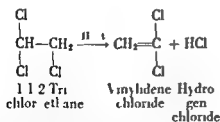
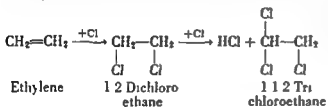
Because polyvinyl chloride products have a tendency to lose hydrogen chloride at high temperatures a stabilizer such as calcium carbonate is usually included in the final composition

Blends or alloys of polyvinyl chloride with small amounts of rubbery materials such as the copolymer of butadiene and acrylonitrile have been produced for applications such as panels and pipe in which impact resistance as well as hardness and strength is desired

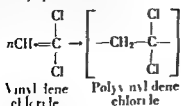
**Polyvinylidene chloride** Polyvinylidene chloride is a tough, horny thermoplastic with properties generally similar to those of polyvinyl chloride. In comparison with the latter, polyvinylidene chloride is softer and less soluble, it softens and decomposes at lower temperatures, crystallizes more readily, and is more resistant to burning.

Because of its relatively low solubility and decomposition temperature, the material is most widely used in the form of copolymers with other vinyl monomers such as vinyl chloride. The copolymers are employed as packaging film, rigid pipe, and as filaments for upholstery and window screens.

Vinylidene chloride is normally prepared by the pyrolysis of 1,1,2-trichloroethane. The latter is obtained by the chlorination of 1,2-dichloroethane which, in turn, is formed by the addition of chlorine to ethylene.



Polymerization as well as copolymerization may be initiated by peroxides and other free radical



catalyst and is most satisfactorily effected by emulsion and suspension techniques

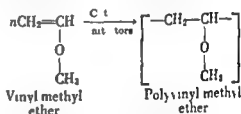
Because of the relatively low decomposition temperature of polyvinylidene chloride a stabilizer such as an amine is normally included in the composition

Films of polyvinylidene chloride and especially the copolymer containing about 15% of vinyl chloride are resistant to moisture and gases. Also they can be heat sealed and have the property of shrinking on heating. By warming a food product wrapped loosely with a film of the polymer a kin tight, tough resistant coating is produced.

By cold drawing the degree of crystallinity, strength, and chemical resistance of sheet films and even piping can be greatly increased.

**Polyvinyl ethers** Polyvinyl ethers exist in several forms varying from soft balamlike emulsions to tough rubbery masses all of which are readily soluble in organic solvents. Polymers of the alkyl vinyl ether are used in adhesive formulations and as softening or flexibilizing agents for other polymers.

The monomers may be prepared by the reaction of alcohols with acetylene in the presence of alkali. Polymerization may be effected in bulk or solution at temperatures of -100 to +25°C by use of cationic initiators such as boron trifluoride. By

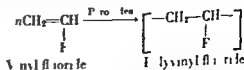


careful choice of conditions it is possible to achieve stereoregular polymerizations which yield partially crystalline polymers that are harder and tougher than the amorphous products.

Polyvinyl methyl ether is soluble in cold water but precipitates when the temperature is raised to about 35°C. The other alkyl vinyl ether polymers are insoluble in water.

**Polyvinyl fluoride** Polyvinyl fluoride is a tough, partially crystalline thermoplastic material which has a higher softening temperature than polyvinyl chloride. Film and sheets are characterized by high resistance to impact and cracking caused by flexing and temperature and to weathering.

Polymerization can be effected in the presence of oxygen and peroxidic catalyst. Because of the low boiling point (-88°C) and high critical tempera-



ture of the monomer, polymerization is accomplished by use of pressure techniques similar to those employed in the high-pressure process for polymerizing ethylene. Like the polyvinylidene chloride, polyvinyl fluoride tends to crystallize at elevated temperatures.



per pulp several million board feet are cut annually *P. grandidentata* the bigtooth aspen attains a height of 60-70 ft and occasionally a diameter of 2 ft The bigtooth aspen has a more restricted range in the northeastern quarter of the United States The leaves are usually of larger size 2½-4 in long and have larger teeth hence the common name The buds are plumper and somewhat downy

The European poplar *P. nigra* which is similar to the quaking aspen is sometimes planted and its variety *italica* the Lombardy poplar of erect columnar habit is used in landscape planting

The black cottonwood *P. trichocarpa* is the largest American poplar and is also the largest broadleaved tree in the forests of the Pacific Northwest It attains a height of 175-225 ft and a diameter of 7-8 ft This tree ranges from southern Alaska to California and eastward through Washington and Oregon to Idaho Montana and Nebraska The hairy fruit of the black cottonwood is a 3 valved capule

*Populus deltoides* native in the eastern half of the United States is a fast growing tree which usually attains 80-100 ft in height and 3-4 ft in diameter but under favorable conditions in the Mississippi Valley it may attain a height of 150 ft and a diameter of 7-8 ft The leaves are broadly triangular hence the specific name and the large terminal buds contain a pleasant smelling balsamic resin In *P. balsamifera* the balsam or tacamahac poplar the resin is used in medicine as an expectorant The wood is used for veneer boxes crates furniture paper pulp and excelsior It is also planted as a shade tree and used in shelter belts See FOREST AND FORESTRY TREE [AHC]

## Poppy

A plant *Papaver somniferum* which is probably a native of Asia Minor It is now cultivated extensively in China India and elsewhere This plant is the source of opium obtained by cutting into the

fruits (capules) soon after the petals have fallen The white latex (juice) flows from the cuts and hardens when exposed to the air This solidified latex is collected shaped into balls or wafers, and often wrapped in the flower petals This is the crude opium which contains at least 20 alkaloids including morphine and codeine The drugs are used in medicine to allay pain induce sleep and relax spasms Opium is one of the most useful drugs but it is habit forming and consequently should be used with the utmost caution The opium habit is deleterious physically mentally and morally and misuse of the drug is an extremely serious problem See PAPAVERALS [PDS]

## Population dispersal

The process by which groups of living organisms expand the space or range within which they live Because of their reproductive capacity all populations have a natural tendency to expand A increased area supports more individual dispersal and reproduction are intimately correlated

Distinction should be made between dispersal and seasonal migration Bird butterflies salmon and others migrate regularly without necessarily expanding their geographic range since they usually return to their original area or die out

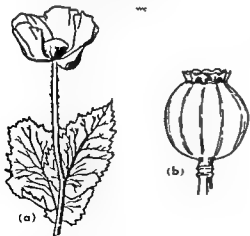
**Dispersal phases** Dispersal consists of several phases (1) the production of units that are of individuals or parts of individuals (disminules) fit or adapted for dispersal (2) the transportation of individuals or disminules to the new habitat (3) ecdysis the process of becoming established through germination rooting physiological and psychological adjustment

**Dispersal units** These are disminules (propagules or diaspores) which may represent various stages of the life cycle of the individual Many free-living animals do not produce peculiar dispersal structures but rely upon the ability of the entire organism to move about (vagility) Organisms attached to a substratum as most plants and certain animals produce disminules adapted to certain agents of dispersal In order to be effective a disminule must have the ability to develop into one or more complete individuals The structures listed in Table 1 are examples of disminules Sperm cells unfertilized eggs and pollen grains although capable of migration are not true disminules because they cannot give rise to new individuals

It is possible to analyze plant communities on the basis of morphological features of the disminules By assigning species to dispersal types one can construct dispersal spectra or separate life forms spectra in purple and in white

**Transportation** Individual or disminule are transported in five general ways self-dispersal (autichry) water dispersal (hydrochry) wind dispersal (anemichry) animal dispersal (zoochory) and dispersal by man (anthrochory)

In active self-dispersal autochry the organism spread in the course of its normal activities The flight of starlings resulting in their gradual spread through the United States is an example of this



(a) Opium poppy (*Papaver somniferum*) (From H. K. Ames Applied and Economic Botany published by the author 1914) (b) Capsule of poppy (From W. E. Loomis and C. L. Winters Botany of Dry 1957)

tbl 1 Ex mpl fd pers l stages in lif cycl  
of pl ts da m l

Enomen	Org	sta	Enomen	l	Enomen	by
Se to tom	K l	Zoospor	C rre			
	Cor l	M l	C rre			
	Sea oem	Troch phoe	C			
	Cl m	Trochoph	C rre			
	E rra l	Ad l	D f o d h po			
	Cab	Zoe	C rre			
	Se rch	M rra	C ts			
	F h	Ad l	A tochory			
	La rey	Ad l	F h			
Terrestrial	M shroon	por	W nd			
	F	so	W nd			
	Pl berry	Seed	W nd			
	T mbl seed	Fru	R l			
	laser	F repl t	W l			
	d	Ad l	A hory nd			
	R les	Yonag m l	W nd			
	berda, m m-	Ad l	A chory			
	mal					
Parasitic	Bacte	En cell	W	foud l		
	I ee nal	C l	W	foud m		
	ba					
	M lari parn	C m	Wmwy			
		porosmet				
	T pe oem	Eg	M			
	Blud fl k	Eg cere	W	na l		

tbl 2. Pl t d pers l types b seed  
upon morph l gical d pt tl

V	D f u		E mpl
Saroch es	D u m	les fleshy	Ch rry
Desmochores	D u m	les t ky	Cock l b
	b bed		
poroch es	D u m	les m te,	F m
	l h t		
P poroch es	D u m	les pl med	M lkweed
P poroch es	D u m	les w ged	M pl
Cy locho es	q ph r l	l f m w k	T mbl weed
B llocho es	Sh t	w y by p r e t	T l m t
	pla t		
A och es	D post ed by po	t	W h g f
	pl t		
Scleroch es	D u m	al with t p-	V l t
	p t d ptals		
B roch es	D u m	les h y	O k

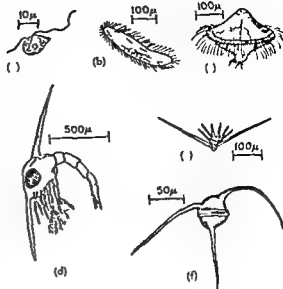


Fig 1. D: m l l pl kt ( ) K lp oo po (b) Co l pl l ( ) W m to h ph (d) C b o ( ) B hl t pl t s (f) C l m t po

n l with pl me f great d t es ( p r h res  
d p g n c l re Fig 2 A) In c t p d r s d  
th l ght m al h e b n f d m y m l e  
th a t g the w th p p l r seed and ther d e  
em ul (Fig 2 f g) This they m y be r d d  
f n d d f m l

An m al d per l z och ry : d ded int p i  
z h y (b b d r s t ky d m m l e d m  
chores Fig 3a b ) and nd ch ry (d em  
n u l e t e a d e g e t d by n m al s) D m m l e  
ad p t d t end ooch are th m l k e r l l a t e  
eed (Fig 3d) m m in the t opics and fruits  
with fl h y m e o c a r p (Fig 3 f g) S r v l al in the  
d g e t i e t t of m al a p r e r e q t e B r i g h t  
f r u t l a r e f q u e n t

D p e l b y m an th p h r y in o l e s p u r  
p o s s e r t o p w e d g a m m h a s d m e t a t d  
a n m l s d p l a t and tho c d e t l y t a n s  
p o t d s u h a s w e d s a l o g r l r d s l e e t l e s in  
g r h p m n s b d a t s b c l d s t a r f l  
n a d n h i p s

E c e s S i p p l t d p l d e p d  
p o t h e f e t r a f t n e f t h n e w h a b i t f i t  
n e s f t h e m g r a t g d d a l d e t h a e f  
the j t p t i n f i t h t w w h h in th l o n g  
n d p n d the n u m b e r o f i d i d l in a d g  
th w h a b t a t The p r h a b i t y f r w h a b t a t  
t b e f a b l m t c l e t o t h p r e n t p o p u  
l t S p b l w n g t d i s t c a h e l s  
ch e f l d g m s p t s s t d f g e m a t  
th h a s e e d f l l g l e t o the p a t p l n t I  
w d e a g d i p l l g n u m b f d s e m  
n l e a l l y r y t h n a t l e r n g e t o  
s

Th f i t f t h d d l s d e p d p r t l y p o n  
the g e t m k e u p O f f p g o f g m s t h a t  
p d e w t h t l i ( p m a t ) e  
l k l y t o s e c e o l y n a d t l h b b t a  
n h d d a d l a m t l h b b t a

l e e l t g a g n e d l y w e n e d t h r o u g h t h m a  
e m e d e m p l C e r t a s p l a t p o e  
m e c h a m s f l f d s p a l s u h e s n d  
b l o c h l t d n T b l 2 I p a d d p e a l  
o r m g t s r r y t h e d p l t t n e w  
l o c u n c h g e t s t o a r e w a t e t s  
m d l y ( m n v b l ) h a t r a m  
t h p a d p l e s  
W a t d p l h y d h r y s p r e v l n t a l l  
m r l a d t h s q a t p p l a t P l k t n  
u l l y n t a l a r v l f m f b b t m d w e l l e  
( F g 1 ) T r r e t l f r m s a t d w t h h o r e  
h a b i t a s c m m n l y d p e d b y w t B o y  
a r y d t a e t h w t m q s t  
f o c d i p l The f i t d e o f w l  
l d h K k t a o f t n f t h t y p  
l s o c e m l t n f l n d f l i  
b e n p l a n e d p r t l y b r r e t  
W d d p e l a m h r y h a o e f f e c t  
l r m e s W g d m l e p e n d t d d  
E r l d ( ) l h e s F g i t d e f f t f l l  
u n g g e d d m l ( p t h r F g 2 b  
d ) d i t e s l g h t w g h t s p n n d d e m

per pulp several million board feet are cut annually. *P. grandidentata* the bigtooth poplar attains a height of 60-70 ft and occasionally a diameter of 2 ft. The bigtooth aspen has a more restricted range in the northeastern quarter of the United States. The leaves are usually of larger size 2½-4 in long and have larger teeth hence the common name. The buds are plumper and somewhat downy.

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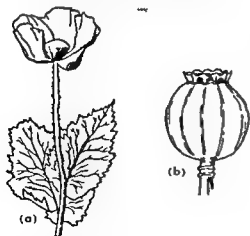
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It is possible to analyze plant communities on the basis of morphological features of the disminules. By assigning species to dispersal types one can construct dispersal spectra comparable to life form spectra in purpose and in usefulness.

**Transportation.** Individual or disminule are transported in five general ways: self-dispersal (autochory), water-dispersal (hydrochory), wind-dispersal (anemochory), animal-dispersal (zoochory) and dispersal by man (anthropochory).

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(a) Opium poppy (*Papaver somniferum*) (Forn H Kame Appl'd & Econ. Botany published by the author 1914) (b) Capsule of poppy (Forn W E Loom and C L Wiegand Botany & Dryd 1957)

Fig 1. Exa ples f di persal stages in lif cycl of plants d mals

Environmen	Or usum	D m m l	D versal by
Bottom	K l	Zooplankton	C rre
	Cor l	M l	C rre l
	Se orm	Trach hore	C rre
	Clam	Trach hore	C rre
	Barnac	Ad l	I ft as l h ps
	Crab	Zoe	C rre
	Se rch	M es	C rre ts
	Fish	Ad l	A ochory
	La peey	Ad l	E h
Terrestrial	M alroom	poro	W nd
	Fern	por	W l
	Fl	Seed	W nd
	Bl berry	Fru	Brd
	T ml seed	Ent pl	W l
	Insect	Ad l	A ochor
	Sp lve	You	W nd
	Rep lsa	Ad l	A torhory
	but m m		
Parasitic	Bac ter	E cell	W fond
	I s s al	C	fond m
	ba		
	M l an pa	G m t	Moog to
		poro	
	T p worm	Egg	Ph
	Blood f k	Eg	W l
		ceccan	

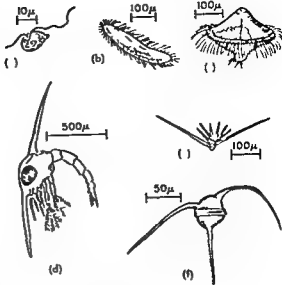


Fig 1. D m l i pl kt ( ) K l p o o p (b) C l pl l ( ) W m t ch ph (d) C b ( ) B t l t pl t (f) C l m i po

Fig 2. Pl nt d persal types based on morph log cal d plat

V	D f i t u	Ex mpl
Surfchores	D assem	les flet y
Drs ochor	D assem	les t ky
	ba bed	
Trachchors	D assem	les m te.
	light	
Popnooch res	D assem	l pl med
Pterochors	D assem	les w ged
Cyclochor	ph	l fram w k
B loch res	Sh t	y by p t
	pl t	
Amochors	D pos ted by p t	
	pl t	
B l roch es	D assem	l w th t p
	pare t d pt u na	
Barochors	D assem	les b y
		O k

t rna res hung in gr d l n d th ough the n tri ent med a e x mpl Ce ta plat p mech as m f elf-d p sal as uxore d b loch es l ted i T bl 2 In p ss ed pe l o m g n t rry th d pr l t to a ew loc n Such ge to ct ew te current d. un l f m n h l s s f i a trans sh pa d pl ne W t d p l o hyd och ry ss p ev l t n ll m r n d th aq t p p l t Plankt a ll ont larv l f r m f b u t m dwell r (Fig 1) T rest al f r m c t d w h e b l t a s e m m o n l y d s p e r e d w t e r B y ancy ad re t n e t l t w t r p e q t e f o c a d p a l The f i t i de f ew lnd h a Kr k t r f n f th typ T o c a m l r t i e n b r d f f s h a been pl ed p tly by t W nd d pe al m hory h v eff t h m es l l g d m l a p d e r t d r l d (y loch es Fig ) t d f e t f l l u g u n p d e m ules (pt h = Fg 2b c d) d t cary tw ght p d d i m

nul with pl m f g at d i t a es (p r h re a d p o g o c l res Fg 2e h) In e t p d e d t l l i g h t a m a l h b e n f i d m y m i l e in the a t g e t h w i t p p l s e e d a d t h d u m i n l e (Fig 2/ g) Thu they may l arried h d r e d f m l e A m l d i p e l z o c h r y d d d i t p i o c h o r y (barbed o t k v d e m i n u l e d e m o h r e s Fg 3 b c) a d d h o r y (d m l e a t e n d g e t e d b y a m l ) D e m i n u l e s a d p t e d t e d o h y a r e t h o e l i k e a r l l t e e e d (Fg 3 f) c m m t h t r o p i c d f r u i t s w i t h a f i h y m e s c r p (Fg 3/ g) S r v i a l i n t h e d g e t t t t f a n m l i s e e q u i s i t e B g h t f i t c o l s f q e n t U p e a l b y m a t h r o p h a r y l e s p p l y d p e e d o g n m s s h a d o m e t c a t e d n m a l a n d p l t d t h o a c c i d e n t a l l y t r a p t d c h a s w e d l g a i l r o a d b e e t l g n s h i p m e t b d t b r n a c l e d s t a f i h a n d s h p E c e s S p p l t n d i s p l d p e n d p o n t h e f t s f i t f t h e n w h a b i t f i t n f i t h m i g r a t i n g i n d i d l s a n d t h e c h a e f t h j t p o s i t o f t h e s e t w w h i h i n t h e l m d p e d n t h e m b e r f a d i d l s i v d g t h e n e w h b t t T h p o b a b i l i t y f o r e w h a b t a t t b e f a b l g e t t c l o t t h p r e t p u l t u n S p o e b l w g e a t d t n s h e l s c h n f l d g n p t t e d f g m i t n t h h e d f a l l g l o e t t h e p e t p l a t I n w d e g e d p r a l l g e r n m b o f d s e m i n l e u s u a l l y r y t h a n a t l r n g e t s s T h M e s s f i t h d i d l d p e n d p tly u p o t h e r g n t m k e u p O f f p n g f g n m t h a t p d w i t h u l (p m t) m l k l y t s u c d l y d t l h a b t a t a p h d d a d l s d m l a g s m O f f



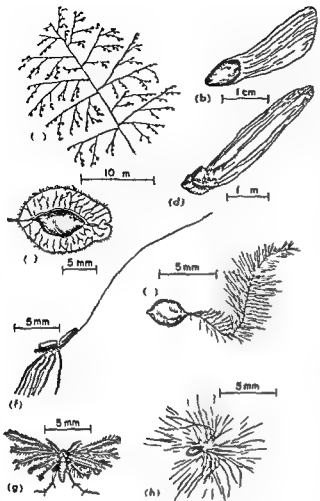


Fig 2 Dispersal of various plant species (a) Pine cone (b) Pine seed (c) Elm samara (d) Tulip tree capsule (e) Cottonwood capsule (f) Spider (g) Moth (h) Cottonwood

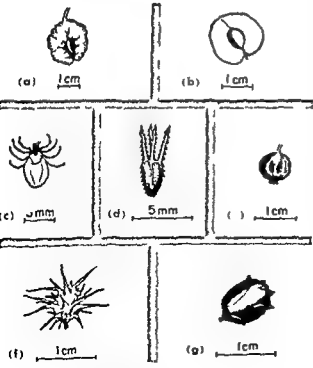


Fig 3 Dispersal of various insects (a) Late lagoon (b) Cherry (c) Tick (d) Bug (e) Caterpillar (f) Sand (g) Juniper

pring from elf or cro fertilizing parent may succeed in a variety of situations However some hybrid which are exually sterile are known to perpetuate them elves through apomix These are usually very successful locally

**Barriers to dispersal** A barrier is any discontinuity in the habitat greater than the maximum distance traveled by organisms in their normal dispersal Oceans separating terrestrial habitats, continents separating marine habitats mountain ranges intercepting wind dispersal and desert interrupting the continuity of forested land are all effective major barriers Through the intervention of man these barriers are broken down in many cases Since the development of frequent world travel thousands of species have become established on new continents as a result of anthropochory See **ANTHROPOCHORYS POPULATION DISPERSION SPECIATION** [ALF]

**Bibliography** P Dan ereau and K Lems The grading of dispersal types in plant communities and their ecological significance *Contrib inst botan univ Montr* 71 1957 P A Fryxell Mode of reproduction of higher plants *Botan Rev* 23 135-233 1957 P A Click *The Distribution of Insects Spiders and Mites in the Air* USDA Tech Bull 613 1939 R Hes e W C Allee and K P Schmidt *Ecological Animal Geography* 1934 E J Salisbury *The Reproductive Capacity of Plants* 1919

**Population dispersion**

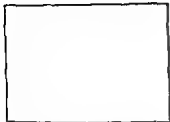
The spatial distribution at any particular moment of the individual of a species of plant or animal Under natural condition organisms are distributed either by active movement or migration or by passive transport by wind water or other means The act or process of dissemination is usually termed dispersal (see **POPULATION DISPERSION**) while the resulting pattern of distribution is referred to as dispersion Dispersion is a characteristic of population controlling various features of their structure and organization It determines population density that is the number of individuals per unit of area or volume and its reciprocal relationship mean area or the average area per individual It also determines the frequency or chance of encountering one or more individuals of the population in a particular sample unit of area or volume The ecologist therefore studies not only the fluctuation in number of individuals in a population but also the changes in their distribution in space

**Principal types of dispersion** The dispersal pattern of individuals in a population may conform to any one of several broad types such as random uniform or contagious (clumped) Any pattern is relative to the space being examined If a population may appear clumped when a large area is considered but may present a distribution at random when reduced to a much smaller area

**Random or haphazard dispersal** This implies that the individual has an equal probability of being anywhere at any point in time or space



(a)



(b)



(c)

1 Th li p m m fth d p n of d  
vol p p l t ( ) U f m (b) R d m  
Cl p d b t g p d m (E P O d m F d  
lab f E l g v S d 1953)

nef all po t (Fig 1b) H t ly d m  
um lld l p ly f h d id l h h d  
q l nd d p d n t p p t t y t e t b l h  
ell t a y g e p t l n d m ly d p d  
p u l t t h l t h p b t w e e n f r e q u e n c y d  
t y n b e p e d l y t h f m u l

$$F = 100(1 - )$$

he F a p t g f q u c y D s d t y d  
w i t h b e f t l N p = l g t h m  
h r e s f d m ly e l e t d m p l s  
t k f m p p l t w h n d d a l r e  
p e - e d a t d m t h e u m b f m p l e o n  
a u 0 1 2 3 d d l f r m t  
i l l k P s d t r b u t

$$D = \frac{D^2}{2} - \frac{D^3}{3} - \frac{D}{1}$$

t d m ly d p d p p l a t h the f th  
t t t t h t h d n t p l e f  
f e d t h d s b t w n d d l s w t h  
h p p l t the f l w g w y

$$D = \frac{1}{3^2}$$

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d t n t g l b o Th m t h e m t l p n  
e n s o l d d t b t n d t h p p a l  
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m a j o r i t y f p p u l t i o n i n p a r t f m u t t h e r t h e  
d r e c t f i r m p a c i e o f i n d i v i d u a l r  
m e f t e n n t l e d e t i n f a g g r e g a t i o n

U n i f o r m d s p e s i o n T h t y p e f d i t r i b u t i o n i m  
p l s a r e g u l a r i t y f d i t e b e t w a n l a m g  
t h e i d i d i a l f a p p l a t i o n ( F g 1 ) P e r f e c t  
u n i f o r m i t y e t s w h n t h d t a e f r m n e i n  
d d a l t n e a r e t n e i g h t r t l e m e f r a l l  
d i v i d l T h a c h l n a p l a e u f e  
o l y w h e n t h i d d l a r e a g e d i n a h a g  
l p a t t e r P a t t a p p r a c l e u n i f o r m i t y a r e  
m t l i u i n t h e d i s p e n f r c h a d t r e a n d  
i t h e r a r t f l p l a n t e l t h t e d v t a  
r e g u l a d t r i t i a l f d i n n a t r e a f r  
e m p l e i n t h r e l a t i v e l y e p a c i g f t r e e i n  
f r e s t c a p e t h e e g e m e t f h l i d e  
e r t d t h e d t l t t e r i l m l

C o t g s r e l m p d l s p e s i o n T i m t f e  
q e t t p e f d t r i b u t i o n e u n t e d e n t a  
g o l m p e d ( F g 1 c ) i n d i c a t i n g t h e e x i t e  
e f a g g r e g a t i o n s e g a p i t h e p o p l t i o n  
C l u t a d c l e f p l a t d f a m i l e s f l k  
d h e d f u m a l a r c m m n t h e n m e a T l  
d f a g g g t m v r a n g e f r m l o l y e n  
n e t e d g p t w t h e i d i a l t l g  
i m p a c t w m m p e d o f a l l t h e m b e r o f  
t h l o c a l p u l t F t h m t l f r m a t i o n f  
g p t r o d u c e s a h i g h e r d e f m p l e x t y  
t h e d p p a t t e r n s i c e t h e v a l a g g g  
t n m y t h m l e s b d t b t e d a t d m  
l o r l m p A n d q t e d e p t n f  
d p e r i n t h e e f e m i t n o l i d t n l t h e d e  
t m t o f t h e t y p e f d i t b t b t a l o n  
e m n t f i t e x t e f f g g a t n i t h l t r  
p e t

A n a l y s i s o f d i s p e r s i o n I f t h e t y p e r d e g r e e o f  
d p e t f t h t y e i d e t u p i n s p e c  
t i o n f q t l b e a t a e d b y u o f  
m p l g t h n q T h e e f t b d o  
u n t f d d l n a m p l p l t q d r t  
D e p t f m d m e u a l l y b d e m  
t t d b y t k g f q d t d t e s t g  
t h m b f d d l f d t h n f t h e r  
f m t y t t h l l t e d P d i t b t o  
w h h h b e e n d b e d a b T h b r e d a l  
u e s n b e m p a r e d w t h t h l c u l t d m b y  
h q r t t f l d f f i t d l k f  
g m t d t f d m d t b  
t n I f t h e n m b e o f q u a d t e t i g e r o r  
f w d d l d f t h e w t h m y a d d l  
g t t h p t d t h p p l t n  
l m p d f t h l e l t h p t d  
t d y t w r d i f r m t y i d t e d A t h e r  
m e f d i e f m n d m s p i d d  
b y t h a m t o w h h 1 0 0 n t h e a  
f t h P o ( d m ) d t b t I f t h e t i o f  
a r a e t m n l t h n 1 0 0 g u l d p e r  
i n d i t d i f t h a t s g e t t h n 1 0 0  
t h d p l m p d

In the case of obviously aggregated populations quadrat data have been tested for their conformity to a number of other dispersion models such as Neyman's contagious, Thomas' double Poisson and the negative binomial distribution. However, the results of all procedures based on counts of individuals in quadrats depend upon the size of the quadrat employed. Many nonrandom distributions will seem to be random if sampled with very small or very large quadrats, but will appear clumped if quadrats of medium size are used. Therefore the employment of more than one size of quadrat is recommended.

The fact that plot size may influence the results of quadrat analysis has led to the development of a number of techniques based on plotless sampling. These commonly involve measurement of the distance between a randomly selected individual and its nearest neighbor or between a randomly selected point and the closest individual. At least four different procedures have been used (Fig. 2). The closest individual method (Fig. 2a) measures the distance from each sampling point to the nearest individual. The nearest neighbor method (Fig. 2b) measures the distance from each individual to its nearest neighbor. The random pairs method (Fig. 2c) establishes a base line from each sampling point to the nearest individual and erects a 90° exclusion angle to either side of this line. The distance from the nearest individual lying outside the exclusion angle to the individual used in the base line is then measured. The point-centered quarter method (Fig. 2d) measures the distance from each sampling point to the nearest individual in each quadrant.

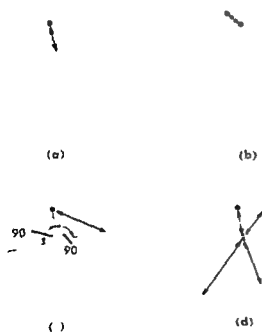


Fig. 2 Distances measured by four methods of plotless sampling. (a) Closest individual. (b) Nearest neighbor. (c) Random pairs with 180° exclusion angle. (d) Point-centered quarter. *Quadrats and the Sampling Problem* (P. G. G. Smith, *Journal of Applied Ecology*, Butterworth, 1957).

In each of the four methods of plotless sampling a series of measurements is taken which can be used as a basis for evaluating the pattern of dispersion. In the case of the closest individual and the nearest neighbor method, a population whose members are distributed at random will yield a mean distance value that can be calculated by use of the density distance equation which has been given above. In an aggregated distribution the mean observed distance will be less than the one calculated on the assumption of randomness; in a uniform distribution it will be greater. Thus the ratio  $r_d/r_e$ , where  $r_d$  is the actual mean distance obtained from the measured population and  $r_e$  is the mean distance expected under random conditions, affords a measure of the degree of deviation from randomness.

Additional information about the spatial relations in a population can be secured by extending these procedures to measurement of the distance to the second and successive nearest neighbors or by increasing the number of sectors about any chosen sampling point. However, since all of the methods assume that the individuals are small enough to be treated mathematically as points, they become less accurate when the individuals cover considerable space.

**Factors affecting dispersion.** The principal factors that determine pattern of population dispersion include (1) the action of environmental agencies of transport, (2) the distribution of soil types and other physical features of the habitat, (3) the influence of temporal changes in weather and climate, (4) the behavior pattern of the population in regard to reproductive processes and dispersal of the young, (5) the intensity of intra- and interspecific competition, and (6) the various social and antisocial forces that may develop among the members of the population. Although in certain cases the dispersion pattern may be due to the overriding effects of one factor, in general populations are subject to the collective and simultaneous action of numerous distributional forces, and the dispersion pattern reflects their combined influence. When many small factors act together on the population, a more or less random distribution is to be expected, whereas the domination of a few major factors tends to produce departure from randomness.

**Actions of environmental agencies of transport.** The transporting action of air masses, currents of water, and many kinds of animal processes both random and nonrandom types of dispersion. Airborne seed, spore, and minute animal are often scattered in apparently haphazard fashion by aggregations may result if the wind blows steadily from one direction. We can see frequently the cause of large concentrations of seed and organisms along the drift line of lake breezes. The habitat of fruit-eating birds, gulls, and the clutches of seedling juniper and cherry found beneath the perch on sites, trees, and dense low willow, the occurrence of isolated individual far from the original source among plant stems, is a general

ral p n ple th t g e g t o n i s a e l y r l t d  
 th p ty of the p e f e e d d p e a l  
 Ph. 1 f t e s of the h a b i t l e p o n f the  
 nd dial f th p o p l a t i o n a r i a t i o n s n t h e  
 i a b t a l o t e d t g e r i e t l o c a l c o n t r a  
 i E n i m e t s a r e r e l y u n f m t h r g h u t  
 o p o r t g e e l l y b e g m r e s t b l e f r l f e  
 h n o i t h e r l t t h a t p u l a t n d e n i t y  
 e n d t b e r e l a t e d r e l t y w i t h t h e f a v b l i t y  
 f h h b t O t e d e a c t e t h e p o i t e r  
 g t e l g h t i t e i t i m t u r g a d i e t r  
 o s o c e s f f o o d h e l t e r s t e n b r g n m b e r s o f  
 d d l t r e s t r i c t e d a e a l t h e c a e s  
 g r e g t o r e s u l t f m s p e c i e h a r a t i t i c  
 r p a t t h e e r m t a d n e d n o t i n l e  
 m y s o c i e t y t t h e r m e m b e r f t h e p o p u  
 l a n (E VIRO MENT)

1 f f i t e m p o a l x a g e s I n m t p e c i e f  
 u m a l d a l a d a n l h a n g e s i w t h e r  
 m t e m m t h c h m o d f e t i g p a t t e n s f  
 f p r M n y f t h e e e o c a t e d w i t h t h e  
 f b d g o f g p a w e l l a s w i t h t h e f r m a  
 i C e r t a b r d b a t s d e e b u t t e r f l f  
 e x a m p l f r m i n a e m b l a g s t n t i m o f  
 d a n d p e a t a n o t h e r S o m e p e i e t d t  
 b e u f r m l y p e d d u r i n g t h e s m m e b t f i k  
 t o g e t h e i n t r H n c e t e m p a l a r i t n i t h e  
 h b i t m a y o f t e n b a s e f f e c t e e n d t e r m n g d i  
 b i t i p t e r n s p t l a t a t

B h a r o p a t t e i p d e t n F a c t o r  
 l e d t r e p o d c t h b i t s l i k e n f l e c e t h e  
 d p e r p t e r n f b t h p l a t a n d n m a l p o p u  
 l a n M a y p l t p o d e e g e t i e l y n e w n  
 d l i s i n g f r m p a e t o s t o c k a d p o d  
 d n g d t t l t e r s t h e r s p r d b y m e a o f  
 r h o m e s n d r u n n d m y t h e r b y a c h e v e a  
 o w h i t m r d m d t b u t n A m o g n m  
 m l g e g t f r m a t g p p s e a e m  
 m u n f o g s a n d t a d a d t h e b e d g w a r m s  
 f m n y n c t I n c o n t t h e b e e d i n g r s  
 t e r e s f v r s f i h e a d b r d s e x h i b i t m  
 p a t l g u l a d p r i n

1 t e n s i t y / c o m p t i o C m p t i t f o l g h t  
 a i e r f o o d a n d t h e r s e f t h e r n m e t  
 t e n d t p o d e f o r m p a t t e r n s f d t r b t n  
 T h e a t h g u l p i g f i r e s n m a y f e s t  
 i n c o m m l y a t t b t d l g e l y t o m p e t i n f o r  
 n l g h t t h t o f d e r t p l t f o l m o t e  
 T h u a f r m d p e r h l p s t r d c t h m  
 t e n t y f c m p t i t w h i g g r e g t i n c a e s

S o c i a l f o s A m o n g m y a n m l t h e m t  
 p r f f e d t e r m n g t h e d p e i p t e r n  
 a s o c i o n e s T h s a l h b i l a d t t h e f r m a  
 t n f g r p o o c i e s ( S O C I A L A N I M A L S )  
 P l a n t e c o l g t t h e t r m m t y f r s  
 t r e p s f m m m n t e s n o p d f l t  
 m n y s p e c b t h t h w d s p p l d t  
 m l t a s b e t f d t g g g t f d d  
 u l f t h e m p e s w h c h c p t e t h e  
 l i f e t i e A n m l t c l g r p  
 t f m a p t l g b u n d h d  
 b n T h y n b l f i d f t n l l y s  
 m l g s o c i e s ( w h t t n a r m n g m

p o l y g m o u s d e p e n d g n t h e l i s t o f t h e p  
 c i e l f a m i l y c i e t i e ( e r b o t h p a r e n t w i t h  
 t h e i r y o u n g ) f e d g t e s ( c h a a r i  
 f l c k s o f l i r d r e s l l o f f i h e s ) a n d a m i g r a  
 t r y o c i e t i e d e f e n e s c i e t i e a d o t h e r t y p e  
 S o c i a l i t y n f e s m a y a d a n t a g e s i c l u d i g  
 g e a t e f f e n c y m u n i n g f o o d n e r v a t i n f  
 b d y l e a t d i n g l d w t h e r m r e t h u g l c n  
 d t m g o f t h e e n i n m n t i n c r e t h a t a  
 b l i t y i e a e d f a l t a t i o n o f m a t g i m p r e d  
 d e t e t i n f a n d d e f e a g a t p e d a t r d e  
 e a e d m r a l i t y f t h e y o g a d a g r e t e r l f e  
 e x p e c t a n y a d t h p l i t y o f d i n o f l a b o r  
 a n d p e l i z a t i o n o f a t t s t d a d a n t a g  
 i n c l u d e c r e e d i m p e t i t n m e r a p i d d e p l e t i n  
 o f r e u r c e s g r e a t e r a t t r a t i n f n e m e s a d  
 m o r r a p d s p r d f p a r i t e s a d d e a e D p i  
 t h e d a d n t a g t h e d e e l p m t d p e r s t  
 n e o f s o c i a l g r o p i a w d e a r t y f n i m a l  
 p e c i e a m p l e i d e c e f i t e a l l u r v l  
 a l n S o m e f t h e a d a n t a g e f t h e m e t y a r e  
 l h a r e d l y a g g e g a t n t i t h a e n s o c i a l  
 b a

O p t i m a l p o p u l a t i o n d e n s i t y T h d e g r e e o f a g  
 g r e g t i w l c h p r m t e s p t i m u m p o p l a t o  
 g r w t h a n d u r v a l h w e e r i e a c c r d i n g t o  
 t h e p e c a d t h e c u m t a n c G r o u p s o f o r  
 g a m s f i n f l o r i h b e t i t e i t h e r f o r n r o o  
 m n y d i d l s a r e p r e e t t h e y h a e n p t i m l  
 p p l a t n d s t y a t m i t e r m e d a t e l e l T h e  
 c d i t n o f t o o f e w i n d i a l k o w n a s u d e  
 e r w d g m a p r e e n t s u f f i c i e t b r e e d i n g c o n t a c t  
 f r n o m a l r a t e o f e p o d u c t O n t h e t h e r  
 h n d o c r w d g o r t h i g h a d s i t y m a y  
 e s l i e r e m p e t i t a d e x e s e i t e r a c  
 t u n t h t w i l l r e d u c e f u n d t y n d l o w e t h e g r w t h  
 r t e f i n d i d a l s T h e n e c e p t o f i n t e r m e d t e  
 p t i m l p p l t n d n t y s m e t m e k n w n s  
 A l l e e s p i n c p l [ r c e ]  
 B b l o g a p h y W C. A l l e e A n m l A g g g  
 t n a S t d y n G = l S o o l o g y 1931 P  
 G r e g S m t h Q t t t e P l a t E c l o g y 1957

## Population dynamics

T h e g g r g a t f p r c e s e t h a t d t e r m n e t h e z e  
 d i m p o s t o f n y p p u l a t n I n t h c o n t e x t  
 p o p u l t s m d e e d t o c s t o f r g a n i m s  
 f a g l s p e s T h g r o p s h r c t e i e d b y  
 d f i n i t m e t o f b o r t h a d d a t h a d o f t n b y  
 d e f i t e c o m p s i t i n w i t h r s p e c t t h e r t o  
 b t w e t h e s a d b t w e n t h e n u m b e r s f  
 d d l s b e l g r g t d f f i r n t a g e l e A n  
 a g g e g t i n f n d i d u l b g h t t o g e t h e r f o  
 t u n t u l y m y r m y t o s t i t a p p l i t n  
 t h

P o p u l a t i o n s i z e a n d d e n s i t y P p u l a t i s e  
 m l l y m e a u d t m s f n u m b e f i n d  
 d a l w h i l p d t t y s f i t x p r e d a s t h  
 n m b f n e w d a d l p r o d u e d p e u t t m  
 T h e r p t h l s t d s o f t i m b e  
 p p l t f m m l l y l b l f i h I n t h e  
 t a c p o d t t y d p p l t r e a p u l u m  
 n p r t l y m e d a t m f m  
 t h t h a m b T h t d v f d y n m n s u h

In the case of obviously aggregated populations quadrat data have been tested for their conformity to a number of other dispersion models such as Neyman's contagious, Thomas double Poisson and the negative binomial distributions. However the results of all procedures based on counts of individuals in quadrats depend upon the size of the quadrat employed. Many nonrandom distributions will seem to be random if sampled with very small or very large quadrat but will appear clumped if quadrats of medium size are used. Therefore the employment of more than one size of quadrat is recommended.

The fact that plot size may influence the results of quadrat analysis has led to the development of a number of techniques based on plotless sampling. These commonly involve measurement of the distance between a randomly selected individual and its nearest neighbor or between a randomly selected point and the closest individual. At least four different procedures have been used (Fig. 2). The closest individual method (Fig. 2a) measures the distance from each sampling point to the nearest individual. The nearest neighbor method (Fig. 2b) measures the distance from each individual to its nearest neighbor. The random pairs method (Fig. 2c) establishes a baseline from each sampling point to the nearest individual and erects a 90° exclusion angle to either side of this line. The distance from the nearest individual lying outside the exclusion angle to the individual used in the baseline is then measured. The point-centered quarter method (Fig. 2d) measures the distance from each sampling point to the nearest individual in each quadrant.

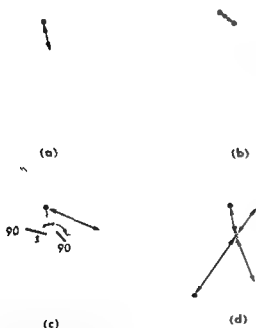


Fig. 2. Distance measured in four methods of plotless sampling. (a) Closest individual. (b) Nearest neighbor. (c) Random pairs with 180° exclusion angle. (d) Point-centered quarter. X is the sampling point. (Chapman and Glegg-Smith, 1957). Plotless sampling. (P. Glegg-Smith, 1957). Plotless sampling. (P. Glegg-Smith, 1957).

In each of these four methods of plotless sampling a series of measurements is taken which can be used as a basis for evaluating the pattern of dispersion. In the case of the closest individual and the nearest neighbor methods a population whose members are distributed at random will yield a mean distance value that can be calculated by use of the density distance equation which has been given above. In an aggregated distribution the mean observed distance will be less than the one calculated on the assumption of randomness. In a uniform distribution it will be greater. Thus the ratio  $r_A/r_E$  where  $r_A$  is the actual mean distance obtained from the measured population and  $r_E$  is the mean distance expected under random conditions affords a measure of the degree of deviation from randomness.

Additional information about the spatial relations in a population can be secured by extending these procedures to measurement of the distance to the second and successive nearest neighbors or by increasing the number of sectors about any chosen sampling point. However since all of these methods assume that the individuals are small enough to be treated mathematically as points they become less accurate when the individuals cover considerable space.

**Factors affecting dispersion.** The principal factors that determine patterns of population dispersion include (1) the action of environmental agencies of transport, (2) the distribution of soil types and other physical features of the habitat, (3) the influence of temporal changes in weather and climate, (4) the behavior pattern of the population in regard to reproductive processes and dispersal of the young, (5) the intensity of intra- and interspecific competition and (6) the various social and antisocial forces that may develop among the members of the population. Although in certain cases the dispersion pattern may be due to the overriding effects of one factor in general populations are subject to the collective and simultaneous action of numerous distributional forces and the dispersion pattern reflects their combined influence. When many small factors act together on the population a more or less random distribution is to be expected whereas the domination of a few major factors tends to produce departure from randomness.

**Actions of environmental agencies of transport.** The transporting action of air masses, current of water and many kinds of animal produces both random and nonrandom types of dispersion. Airborne seeds, spores and minute animals are often scattered in apparently haphazard fashion but aggregation may result if the wind holds steadily from one direction. Water action is frequently the cause of large concentrations of seed and organisms along the drift line of lake shores. The habit of fruit-eating birds gives rise to the clusters of seedling junipers and cherries found beneath the perching sites of trees and fence-rows as well as to the occurrence of isolated individuals far from the original source. Among plants it seems to be a gen-

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B b i o g p h y W C. A l l e e A m l A g g e g a  
 t i o a S t d y n G n a l S l g y 1931  
 G r e g S m i t h Q u a t i t y P l a n t E c o l g y 1957

## Population dynamics

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population merely requires consideration of individual growth rates in addition to numbers and ages and we will here limit our discussion to population measures used by enumeration.

In practice it is difficult to define the limits of a population and enumeration normally measures some type of population density. Crude density is the number of individuals per unit of selected space or volume. Examples of this are the number of deer in a county or other areal unit or the mean number of fish per acre of water surface or per cubic meter of water. This measure suffers from the fact that the units of area and volume are heterogeneous and the population does not utilize all of the available space. Ecological or economic density refers to the mean number of individuals per unit of space actually utilized. Sometime it is easier to enumerate a population under conditions of maximum density as when fur seals or colonial birds are on their breeding ground when deer are in winter yard or when snakes are congregated in dens. Often the only practicable measures of natural populations involve relative density and are designed to show whether a population is increasing or decreasing without determining its actual size. Thus the number of birds seen per man hour of walking and the number of squirrels treed per dog hour have been used to compare population densities in different years and places. Formidable statistical and practical problems are involved in the enumeration of natural populations.

**Population growth** A population can gain in numbers only by birth and immigration and it can decrease only by death and emigration. In considering theoretical population dynamics we customarily ignore migratory movements and concentrate our attention on the birth and death processes. Individuals of every species have the potentiality for producing more offspring than are required to replace the parent. Without this potential the species could not meet emergencies and would necessarily become extinct. Some organisms reproduce once per lifetime others many times. Some produce tremendous numbers of gametes others few. Also the age at which reproductive maturity occurs varies tremendously—from a few minutes in bacteria to more than a century in the giant Sequoia tree. These life history features determine the potential growth rate of the population or the biotic potential of the species.

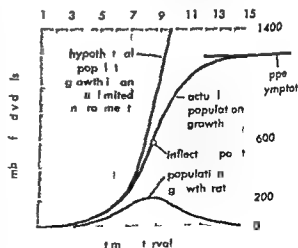
If the life history features remained the same in successive generations the population would ultimately grow in accordance with the equation  $N = Ae^{rt}$  for which the growth rate at time  $t$  is  $dN/dt = rN$ . In this formula  $N$  is the population size at time  $t$ ,  $A$  is a constant  $e$  is the base of the natural logarithmic system and  $r$  is a measure of population growth. The value of  $r$  which is determined by natural history features is commonly referred to as the intrinsic rate of natural increase and it has been proposed to define biotic potential as the normal maximum value of  $r$  for a given population.

This exponential form of potential population growth implies exceedingly rapid expansion. In a single individual of an annual plant in which each individual produces only two viable seed would leave 1 000 000 descendants in 20 years if all seeds survived and in fact every species is theoretically capable of overflowing the earth. In actuality limits in natality (birth rates) and mortality inhibit unlimited exponential growth.

**Population control or regulation** Since potential population growth is exponential while real population size is limited much interest and controversy has centered about the form of actual population growth. Commonly when the size of a growing population is plotted against time the result is a broad S shaped (sigmoid) form of growth curve which often appears to be symmetrical about a central point of inflection where the rate of growth shifts from increase to decrease.

Attempts to give a generalized mathematical formulation of population growth have led to consideration of equations of the form  $dN/dt = rN/f(N)$ . This equation differs from that describing exponential growth in that the factor  $f(N)$  gives a governing or damping factor which takes the value zero when  $N$  is very large indicating that there is some finite upper limit to the size of a population that is capable of further growth.

Various proposals have been offered concerning the form of this governing factor. If  $f(N)$  is assumed to be merely a decreasing function of time the result is one form of the discredited doctrine of racial senescence the upshot is that populations age and die as do individual organisms. Numerous workers have supposed that  $f(N)$  is a random variable sometimes positive and sometimes negative so that populations normally fluctuate about a steady state or equilibrium size. Modern probability theory shows this position to be untenable in a simple form. By this doctrine random extinction would be the eventual fate of all populations but contrary to experience small populations of obscure forms often would be observed to grow to



Population dynamics. The type of growth curve given by the data.





linearly with population size. No account is taken of underpopulation effects. The integrated logistic curve, however, is sigmoid shaped and symmetrical about its central point of inflection. It often gives a very good representation of the course of population growth. It occupies a prominent though controversial position in modern theories of population dynamics.

**Optimum yield.** An important consequence of the sigmoid form of population growth is the fact that populations of intermediate size are capable of more rapid growth and greater productivity than are either very large or very small populations. If growth were strictly logistic, the most rapid growth would occur at a population size of  $K/2$  and the growth rate at this point would be  $rK/4$ .

When man begins to exploit a large population as in commercial fishing, the effects of his catch will be to reduce population size. If exploitation is not too intense, the smaller population will lie on a steeper portion of the sigmoid growth curve and will therefore be more productive than the larger population. The population is said to compensate for the increased mortality. In theory, productivity will increase with rate of exploitation to the point where population size reaches the inflection in the growth curve. Hence the maximum possible sustained harvest would be obtained by reducing the population to the inflection point and harvesting at a rate just sufficient to maintain this size. There are many practical difficulties in all actual attempts to determine the optimum rate of harvest and the general problem has become widely known as the optimum yield problem. It is noteworthy that if the population is overfished so that its size passes below the inflection point, productivity will decline with each further decrease in size. Then each increase in the effort to harvest a crop will have the effect of reducing the long-term yield. There is reason to believe that many commercial fisheries are reducing their total catch by fishing too intensively.

The same principles apply to attempts to control noxious species. Rodent populations, for example, compensate for mortality and it is possible to harvest a large annual crop of rats without actually reducing the population. Programs of killing are often discontinued before the population falls below the inflection point where control would become progressively easier. Consequently, the most effective way of dealing with noxious forms is often to reduce the carrying capacity of the environment. Programs for improving garbage disposal and for ratproofing buildings will often be much more effective than programs of killing.

**Fluctuations.** Populations of many species fluctuate in size from year to year, and a very large literature exists on this subject. Plagues of rodents and locusts are recorded in the Old Testament and similarly ancient sources and the migrations of the lemmings and the eruptions, outbreaks, or gradations of various insect populations have often

attracted popular attention. There is a tendency for eruptions to be most conspicuous in high latitude and other regions where the biota is composed of relatively few species of plants and animals. Outbreak years typically follow periods of build-up during which the population nearly realizes its potential of exponential growth. Eventually, population size exceeds the capacity of the environment to sustain it and the population "crashes" after dropping abruptly to a very low level.

**Cycles.** The most discussed of the fluctuating populations have been those of certain gallinaceous birds, rodents, rabbit, and fur-bearing mammals in northern regions. The records of the Hudson Bay Company, for example, provide figures for a long series of annual catches, and many students of populations have considered that the rhythms or cycles in such records indicate a regular periodicity in the rise and fall of population size. Although cycles of various length have been postulated, the most competent opinion in recent years has considered that there are two predominant cycle lengths: a short cycle of approximately 3 or 4 years and a longer cycle often referred to as the 10-year cycle.

Numerous explanations have been advanced. One of the most popular has been the belief that the populations follow some extraterrestrial rhythm, especially the sunspot cycle. Such hypotheses suffer from numerous observations indicating that populations in different regions may be out of phase with each other. Others have had explanations on population dynamic, claiming in effect that the cyclic species are deficient in feedback mechanisms so that exponential growth is not inhibited until disastrously high densities are attained. Still others have attributed the cycles to interactions between two species, herbivores and their food plant, or predators and their prey. The predator is visualized as growing until it exhausts its food supply and then undergoing violent decline until the prey population has time to recover. The hypotheses are not entirely satisfying because it is difficult to see why many species with diverse life histories should adhere to this basic cycle length. The Canadian lynx and the chinqu bug, for example, are both considered to exhibit 10-year cycles.

**Other factors.** It has also been noted that random variables such as the sizes of the number turning up on a roulette wheel will, when plotted on graph paper, give an appearance of regularity and show a series of peaks occurring at a mean interval of 3-4 numbers. It has been postulated that the great variety of haphazard factors affecting population size constitute a causal system comparable in complexity to that governing the roulette wheel and that the appearance of peak population years may therefore be considered to be governed by a random variable.

Whatever may be the causes of population fluctuations, they are often of great practical importance. Much remains to be learned about possibilities for predicting peak years in crop damage and



be stable. The changes in  $q$  described above are independent of the mating system practiced in the population.

In nature and under artificial conditions the mutation rates may not remain constant in all generations but may fluctuate within a certain range from time to time. In such cases instead of a single fixed equilibrium point  $q$  there will be an equilibrium distribution of  $q$  within a certain range and the apparent change in gene frequency from one generation to the next may be purely a stochastic phenomenon without necessary long-term significance. The same remark applies to all equilibria to be established in subsequent paragraphs. See STOCHASTIC PROCESS.

**Migration and intermixture.** If a fraction  $m$  of a population with a gene frequency  $q$  consists of immigrants from outside and the immigrant group has a gene frequency  $\bar{q}$  then the new gene frequency of the population will be  $q_1 = (1 - m)q + m\bar{q} = q - m(q - \bar{q})$ . The amount of change in gene frequency in one generation is thus  $\Delta q = q - q_1 = -m(q - \bar{q})$  showing that the change is proportional to the deviation  $(q - \bar{q})$ . This expression for  $\Delta q$  is of the same form as that for mutation. If the immigrants have the same gene frequency as that in the population there will be no change in gene frequency in spite of the migrations. The continued intermixture of neighboring populations will eventually make them homogeneous in terms of gene frequency. Thus if a large population is divided into a number of partially isolated subpopulations migrations between the groups will eventually make all subpopulations have the same gene frequency  $\bar{q}$  which then denotes the average for the entire population in the absence of other disturbing factors. If the local populations are differentiated genetically there must be some mechanism (for example local selection) to counteract the pooling effect of migrations so that an equilibrium condition may be reached. The change in gene frequency due to migration is independent of the mating system practiced in the population.

**Mating systems.** In a gene pool with respect to one locus if a proportion  $p$  of the genes is  $A$  and a proportion  $q$  of the genes is  $a$  the genotypic proportions in the population are still unknown until the mating pattern is specified. The mating pattern is a system by which the genes are associated into pairs to form the diploid genotypes. The mating systems vary widely in nature for different organisms and populations. Thus wheat may have 100% cross pollination and 99% self fertilization whereas maize practices just the reverse. One of the simplest and most extensively studied systems is random mating also known as panmixis.

**Panmixis.** Random mating between individuals is equivalent to a random union of gametes. Thus if the  $(pA \ q a)$  gametes of one sex unite at random with the  $(pA \ q a)$  gametes of the opposite sex the resulting genotypic array will be  $pAA \ 2pqAa \ qaa$ . The expected genotypic proportions will be realized

only in very large populations. See HARDY WEINBERG FORMULA. HUMAN GENETICS.

**Inbreeding.** Inbreeding refers to mating between genetically related individuals; the frequency with which two  $A$  gametes unite will be greater than  $p^2$  and a similar situation is true for gene  $a$ . Consequently inbreeding leads to an increase of homozygosity at the expense of heterozygosity. Let  $H$  be the heterozygosity proportion in a population  $H$  that in the preceding generation  $H$  that two generations ago and so on. On continued systematic inbreeding the manner in which the value of  $H$  decreases is shown in Table 1.

Continued close inbreeding such as the degrees indicated in Table 1 and many other eventually leads to complete homozygosity. The population will then consist of  $pAA$  and  $qaa$  that is an  $A$  gamete will always unite with another  $A$  gamete and an  $a$  gamete with another  $a$ . Inbreeding between remote relatives does not necessarily lead to complete homozygosity but only decreases the heterozygosity below the random mating level to a certain extent.

The inbreeding coefficient is an index intended to measure the amount or degree of inbreeding that has been accomplished in a population. Various indices may be constructed. One that has been proved highly useful in both theoretical investigation and practical breeding work is the inbreeding coefficient  $F$  defined as the correlation coefficient between the uniting gametes. The value of  $F$  ranges from 0 for random mating to 1 for inbreeding in a homozygous population as shown in Table 2.

In an inbred population where the correlation between the uniting gametes is  $F$  the genotypic array in the population will be

$$\begin{aligned} AA & p^2 + Fpq = (1 - F)p^2 + Fp \\ Aa & 2pq - 2Fpq = 2(1 - F)pq \\ aa & q^2 + Fpq = (1 - F)q^2 + Fq \end{aligned}$$

The last set of expressions shows that the population may be mathematically considered as having two separate components  $(1 - F)$  panmictic and  $F$  fixed. If the mating system is such that  $F$  remains constant (instead of increasing) from generation to generation the population will reach an equilibrium state with the genotypic array shown above.

Table 1 Decrease in heterozygosity with systematic inbreeding

Inbreeding system	$H$	Heterozygosity ( $H$ ) decrease	Limit $H$
Self fertilization	$H = \frac{1}{2}H$		$H = 0.500H$
Simple brother-sister	$H = \frac{1}{4}H$		$H = 0.500H$
Brother-brother or sister-sister	$H = \frac{1}{4}H + \frac{1}{2}H$		$H = 0.800H$
First cousins	$H = \frac{1}{8}H + \frac{1}{2}H$		$H = 0.800H$
Half brother-half sister	$H = \frac{1}{4}H + \frac{1}{4}H$		$H = 0.800H$
Half brother-sister or half sister-brother	$H = \frac{1}{8}H + \frac{1}{4}H + \frac{1}{2}H$		$H = 0.800H$
Double first cousins	$H = \frac{1}{8}H + \frac{1}{4}H + \frac{1}{4}H$		$H = 0.900H$

2. Relative of  $F$  to lib ed g coefficient

R d m m t g

4

$A$	$p$	$pq$	$p$
	$pq$	$q$	$q$

Correl 1 = 0

**l b ed pop lat o**

4

$p + Fpq$	$pq - Fpq$	$p$
$pq - Fpq$	$q + Fpq$	$q$

$\begin{array}{ccc} p & & q \\ \text{Co} & | & F \end{array}$

# h m zyg      pop l t on

4

$A$	$p$	$0$	$p$
	$0$	$q$	$q$

Correl  $t_1$  = 1

The correlation between winning games and the latent ability to find a dominant strategy is  $\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{2} \approx 0.71$ . If we denote the number of correct matches, then  $M = 7F(1 + F)$ .

[illegible]

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h w n I n T a b l e 3

The population after selection is the parental population of the next generation. The total fitness of the parental population is  $\bar{w}$ ; the total fitness of the selected population is  $\bar{w}'$ . The frequency of gene  $a$  in the selected population is  $q' = (pqH' + qH'')/\bar{w}'$  and therefore the mean fitness of the population is  $\Delta q = q' - q$  or  $m$ .

$$\Delta q = \frac{pq}{2W} \frac{dW}{dq}$$

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Table 3. Effect of selection for mating population.

■	typ	F eq f cy	F t es B	F eq f cy lect
AA	■		W	p W
A	p q		B	p q B
	q		B	q B B
T t l	100			W

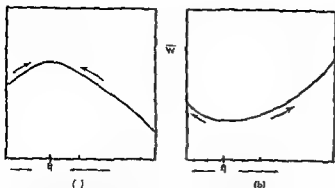


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value exist it must be the following solution of the equation  $d\bar{W}/dq = 0$

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The genotypic selective values  $\bar{W}_1$ ,  $\bar{W}_2$ ,  $\bar{W}$  have been assumed to be fixed for each genotype but in nature they may vary in various ways. In addition to the omnipresent random fluctuations the selective values may vary with the gene frequency itself. For instance a genotype may be favored by selection when it is rare in the population but suffer a disadvantage when it is too common. For such cases there will be an equilibrium yielding genetic polymorphism. Let  $U_1$  a function of  $q$  be the varying selective value of genotype  $AA$  and so on. Then the equilibrium value of gene fre-

quency is given by the appropriate solution of the equation

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**Gametic selection** The effective rate at which the  $A$  and  $a$  gametes function may not be the same; that is, selection may operate in the gametic instead of in the diploid genotypic stage. If the selective actions for the genotype  $aa$  for example and gamete  $a$  are in opposite directions an equilibrium may result.

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 l g th d f f e r b e t w e e W d F th m l l e r  
 th m b e r  $\frac{1}{2}$  m p d w th  $W + F$   
 2 L n q l z e f f e r b e a f th g m t e a  
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f f t t s is the m a t h a t a l f r e d i n g  
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 i f th m n n u m b e r f g a m t a p r p a r e n t i s  
 $k = 2$  th eff t i z e s q u a l t o  
 $\frac{1}{2} = (1\frac{1}{2} - 2) / (a_1 + 2)$   
 w h e r e  $\sigma$  i s p r e u m a l l y l a r g e r t h 2  
 3 I n t r e d i n g I f F i s th i n b r e e d i n g c o e f f i c i e n t  
 f a p p l i t i o n t h e n t h e f f t i z e s  $\frac{1}{2} =$   
 $N / (1 + F)$   
 4 P r e d i c t a g a l p o p u l a t i o n I f  $\frac{1}{2}$   
 A a e t h r e s p e c t i v e s f th t g n r  
 t o th a e r a g e f f i c i e n t f r t h p e r i o d  
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 Gene frequencies A s u n a r y d t r i t n f  
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 f t n f th l e t e f f e n t a w l l a t h  
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 I f th m t t n m g t e n p r o c e s s o r  
 b e t h t h d e t e r m i n a t n f g e n f r q n e n y m p l y a  
 p d t t h t n  $\phi(q) = C\bar{q}^2 (1-q)^2$  w h e r  
 $\bar{q} = 4\frac{1}{2} \mu$   $\bar{q} = 4V$  f t h e r l y m t t n p  
 $U = 4\frac{1}{2} m \bar{q}$   $V = 4\frac{1}{2} m f$  i f th r n l y m i  
 g r a t u p r o c e s s d  $U = 4\frac{1}{2} (1 + m)$   $\bar{q} =$   
 $4V(1 + m)$  f th b e t h Th e x c e l f r m f  
 th p d t t t n d e p e n d p o n t h a l e a f U a n d  
 V W h e n t h e y m a l l e r t h t y t h p p l t n  
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 $\phi(q) = C\bar{q}^2 q^2 (1-q)$   
 F i g u r e 2 h w m f th f r m f t h e d t t o  
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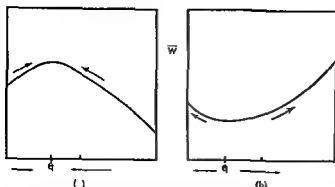


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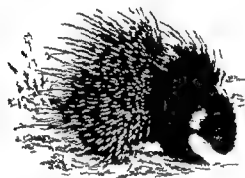
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in absorption this material might better be  
called an fired in on. See CERAMIC TECHNOLOGY  
[MCM]

## Parcours

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## Pontera

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 e. con PARATOR.  
 Taxonomy Th P se d added nt th  
 w y H xat ell da C le ea and Demo

pongise on the basis of the skeletal structure. A taxonomic scheme of the Iorsera follows. See separate article on each group.

CI II actinelli da

S h e l l a   A m p h i d i o p h o r a  
Order   A m p h i d i o c e a  
Order   H e m i d i o c e a  
S u f f l a   H e x a t e r o p h o r a  
Order   H e x a t e r o  
Order   L e u c i n a  
Ord   L y c i n a  
Ord   R e u c i n o

Clasificación de la Cálculo

Subcla Cal in a  
Order Clathra da  
Ord Le cett da  
Orde Tha tro ida  
Sul cla Calca on a  
O d Le ic len da  
Ord Sy cett da

## Cl s Dem p glae

Sibyl s T tra t n morpha  
Orde Yl m y rophor d  
Order Ch r tida  
Orde Cla ax ell ds  
Subcla Ceracti morpha  
O der D dr er t da  
Ord D cty r tida  
O der Hapl ler d  
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Ord r H l ho drid

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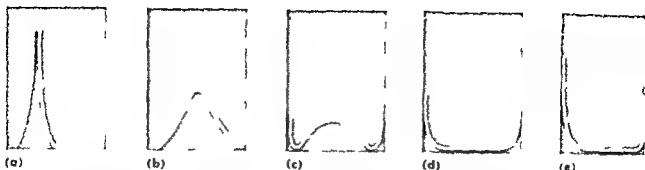


Fig. 2 (a) Large population the distribution clustered close to the equilibrium value (b) Intermediate population a distribution of wide spread (c) Intermediate small population a distribution with some terminal fixation

ation (d) Small population most genes close to fixation = extinction in the absence of systematic measures (e) Small population with strong selection on phenotype

licated. Furthermore, if the mutation rates and selection coefficients also vary instead of being constant, the mathematical description of the stochastic process becomes very laborious and the forms shown in Fig. 2 give only a first approximation to the real situation.

The distribution forms of the gene frequencies depend upon the relative magnitudes of the various factors which bring about populational changes. In large random mating populations all gene frequencies remain close to their stable equilibrium value, which are determined by the counteracting but systematic pressures of mutation, selection and migration. There will be no further genetic change unless the environmental conditions change so as to define new equilibrium points. Evolution in such large populations is guided essentially by intra-group selection and progress is very slow.

In small and completely isolated populations most of the gene frequencies are close to 0 or 1 because of the random drift process which dominates the situation. Selection is ineffective. The loci are prevented from being completely fixed only by occasional mutations or immigrants. The ultimate fate of such small homozygous populations is probably extinction because they are nonadaptive and unable to respond to new conditions.

In populations of intermediate size all factors both random and systematic come into play and the population is more responsive to evolutionary change. If a large population is subdivided into many partially isolated groups with migrations between them there will be some differentiation among the groups, mostly if it is adaptive and some nonadaptive, but there is very little fixation. The selection effect varying from one locality to another then operates largely on an intergroup basis which is more efficient than the intragroup selection within one single large population. If the groups are small, some of them will be eliminated by selection while others flourish. This provides the most favorable condition for evolutionary success for the species as a whole. The conclusion is that there is no one all important factor in evolution. Evolutionary advance depends upon the interplay and balance of all factors. See BIOMETRY.

## EVOLUTION ORGANIC GENETICS MUTATION (ON TOGENY) [CCL]

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## Porcelain

A high grade ceramic ware characterized by high strength, a white color (under the glaze), very low absorption, good translucency, and a hard glaze. Equivalent terms are European porcelain, hard porcelain, true porcelain, and hard paste porcelain. See GLAZING POTTERY.

Porcelain is distinguished from other fine ceramic ware such as china by the fact that the firing of the unglazed ware (the blank firing) is done at a lower temperature (1000-1200°C) than the final or glaze firing which may be as high as 1500°C. In other words, the ware reaches its final state of maturity under the glaze. This makes for an exceedingly intimate bond between the glaze and the body, which in turn gives high strength.

The white color is obtained by using very pure raw materials; the low absorption results from the high firing temperature and the translucency from the chemical composition, the high firing temperature and the very thin section in which the ware can be made.

The term porcelain has been applied to the material used to make such things as electrical insulators and bathroom fixtures. Very often these are made in a one fire process; the glaze being applied to the green unfired ware. Here the white and high grade material are used in compounding the body; the term porcelain may be correctly applied. However, the piece has no translucency because of their great thickness. On the other hand, the term porcelain is often applied to quite different ware. For example, zircon porcelain is used to describe a material made largely of zircon ( $ZrO_2 \cdot SiO_2$ ) with small amounts of flux to yield

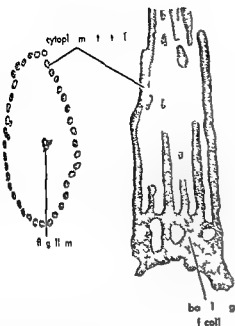


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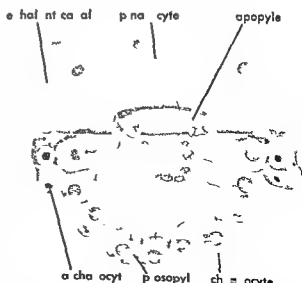


Fig 4 D g m o f f l g l l d h m b f f h  
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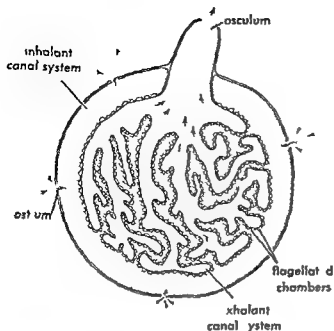


Fig 1 Diagram of the canal systems of a young fresh water sponge cultured between cover slip and microscope slide (After Akl 1950)

derived from archaeocytes secrete spicules and pinacoblasts secrete pinacins.

The nucleolate cells with small nuclei include the pinacocytes mentioned above, collencytes and choanocytes. In addition to their function as epithelial cells, pinacocytes may be differentiated into spindle shaped contractile cells called myocytes which occur in circles under the epithelium around ostia and oscula. Collencytes are star shaped and have long thin protoplasmic prolongations which insinuate throughout the inhalant canal. When they are bipolar, collencytes are called desmocytes or fiber cells and are found in abundance in the cortex of some species of sponges. Star shaped collencytes with a vesicular or vacuolate cytoplasm are called cystocytes. The choanocytes are the most highly differentiated cells of the sponge. Each consists of a small spherical cell body surmounted by a collar formed of many individual contractile cytoplasmic tentacles and provided with a flagellum which extends from the lumen of the collar.

The mesenchymal cells and the skeleton of the Demospongiae and Calcareia are surrounded by a colloidal gel called mesoglea secreted by amoebocytes and possibly choanocytes. Elastic fibers which help provide support for the sponge occur in the mesoglea of most species.

**Water current system physiology** The flagellated chambers are hemispherical in shape with a diameter of 40–60  $\mu$  in fresh water sponge. They are composed of choanocytes firmly held to each other. The uncoordinated beating of the flagella of the choanocytes creates the flow of water through the sponge. Water enters the flagellated chambers from the inhalant canals by way of openings between choanocytes. Two or three such openings (prosopyles) lead into each chamber. Water leaves each

chamber and enters the exhalant system by way of a single larger pore (apopyle) through the epithelial lining of the exhalant canal. The lumen of an apopyle is ten times greater than that of all the prosopyles leading into the chamber, thus water enters the chambers at a velocity ten times greater than that at which it leaves. The collars of the choanocytes are so oriented that each directs its current toward the apopyle.

A fall in pressure takes place between apopyles and prosopyles and therefore the prosopyles exert a suction effect on the water in the inhalant canal. The effect of this lowered pressure is transmitted to the subdermal cavity and water is therefore drawn into the ostia forcibly. Food particles which may be at considerable distances from the pores are sucked in along with the water.

The incurrent canals are filled with a network of free cells which tends to decrease the velocity of the water, but the retarding effect of the frictional forces is compensated by the resultant decrease in diameter of the streams of water passing through the inhalant canals. The velocity of current flow through the inhalant canals is twice as great as that through the exhalant canals which have smooth walls but are also greater in diameter. An excess pressure exists in the exhalant canals as a result of the pumping action of the flagellated chambers.

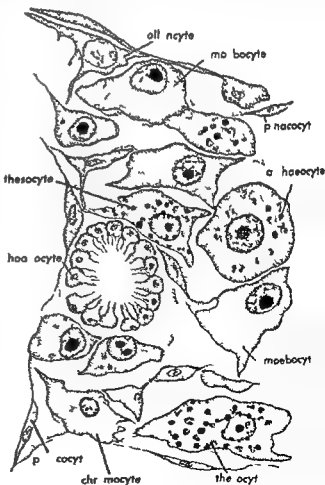


Fig 2 Type of cells found in a fresh water sponge as seen through the microscope (After Mew 1936)

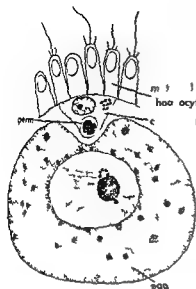


Fig 7 C cell mit g pe mt gg C I  
 ceo p go (A H D b c q d T t 1937)

from the flagellated cells of the larva from choanocytes. The sperm enters the cell but though the sperm is diacytic and the cell which is its cell and flagellum and migrates from the flagellated cell to a position adjacent to the egg. This process has been observed in several species of Calcareous and Demospongiae and is probably a general occurrence in the groups. The sperm which is the tail of the egg is usually fully inserted into the egg. The egg is then fertilized and the egg is then fertilized.

**FERTILIZATION**  
 The egg is fertilized by the sperm of the male larva. The sperm is somewhat in the shape of a rod. The sperm is then fertilized and the egg is then fertilized. The sperm is then fertilized and the egg is then fertilized.

**HEXACTINELLA**  
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The sperm is then fertilized and the egg is then fertilized. The sperm is then fertilized and the egg is then fertilized. The sperm is then fertilized and the egg is then fertilized. The sperm is then fertilized and the egg is then fertilized.

All the water and many marine organisms are taken into the prodigious bed of the gemmule. The part of the life cycle of the gemmule is formed by the choanocytes. The choanocytes are found in the prodigious bed of the gemmule. The choanocytes are found in the prodigious bed of the gemmule. The choanocytes are found in the prodigious bed of the gemmule.

fresh water, sponge and a few marine species carry the species over periods of unfavorable environmental conditions. It has droight or low temperatures during which time the cell col degenerate. Germination of the gemmules occurs upon return of suitable conditions. In many marine sponge gemmules are formed at all seasons and the adult clone how no independent.

In a few species of Demospongiae and Hexactinellada a sexually produced gemmule is called a spongin. It has been described as a developing into a flattened larva identical in structure to the found as a result of sexual process.

Budding is another common type of asexual reproduction in sponges. In *Tethya* for example groups of archocytes migrate to the tip of the

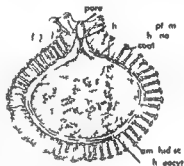


Fig 8 Sp ng g mmul ( ) Fr hw t spo ge  
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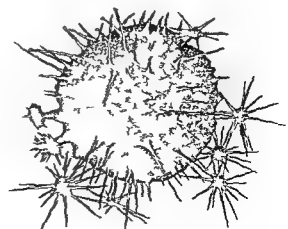


Fig 9 C l y f f t h y m o l e p g  
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Although neither of the siliceous sponges described above reacted in any way to light it has been reported that in the calcareous sponge *Leucosolenia* bright light causes a circular constriction and a change in tube shape.

Although there is little evidence from the behavior of sponges that nerve cells are present, cytological studies suggest that such cells do exist. Cells interpreted as being bipolar and multipolar nerve cells have been described from a wide variety of Demospongiae and Calcareae. In fresh water sponges and in a few marine Demospongiae peculiar cells called lophocytes have been described beneath the dermal membrane. The cell which bears a process terminating in a tuft or fibrils may also be nerve cells although it has been suggested alternatively that they secrete fine fibers forming a layer above them in the case of one species of fresh water sponge. Unequivocal evidence that nerve cells exist in sponges can come only from physiological studies and reports based on cytological work alone must be viewed with skepticism at present.

**Skeleton.** Characteristic of sponges is the presence of a skeleton of sclerites or of organic fibers or both. Only a few genera such as *Halysarca* and *Oscarella* lack skeletal elements. The skeleton is of primary importance in the classification of sponges; indeed the three classes of the phylum are separated on the basis of skeletal structure.

The shapes of the sclerites or picules vary greatly and an elaborate terminology has been developed for them by taxonomists. An initial sub-

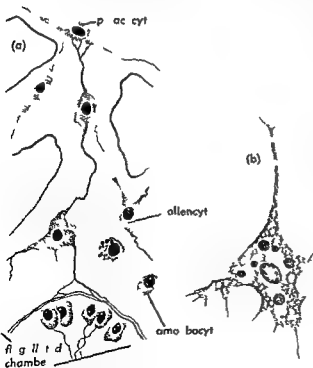


Fig. 5. Supposed nerve cells in sponges. (a) Two cells joined by a process, with flagellated chamber, calcareous sponge. (b) Solitary cell near surface connected to mesenchyme, calcareous sponge. (after *Porifera* de Carrozzini, 1955).

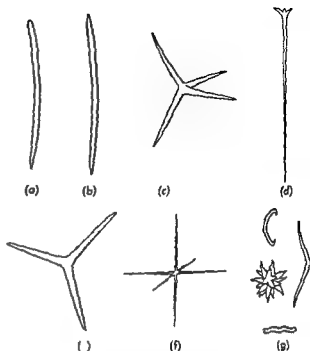


Fig. 6. Spicule types. Monaxons: (a) monactinal, (b) diactinal. Tetraxons: (c) equirayed and (d) actine. Triaxons: (e) triactinal, (f) triaxon, and (g) microclere.

division into megascleres and microscleres is made on the basis of size. A more detailed nomenclature is based on the number of axes or rays present; an appropriate numerical prefix is added to the ending axon (referring to the number of axes) or actine (referring to the number of rays or points). Spicules formed by growth along a single axis are known as monaxons. Such spicules are monactinal (pointed at one end only) if growth occurs in one direction or diactinal (pointed at each end) if growth occurs in both directions. Tetraxons are spicules with four axes or rays, each pointing in a different direction. All four rays may be equal in length but often one ray is longer than the other three and the spicules are called triactines. Triactines (three rayed) spicules are commonly found in calcareous sponges. Hexactinellid sponges are characterized by the presence of spicules with three axes (triaxons) meeting at right angles. Such spicules have six rays and are always called hexactines.

The fibrous skeletons of bath sponges are composed of spongin, a scleroprotein in which are incorporated halogenated amino acids (moniodo- and dibromotyrosine). Spongin is also found in many species of Demospongiae with siliceous picules where it serves as an interpicular cement or forms fibers in which the picules are embedded.

**Reproduction.** Both sexual and asexual reproduction occur in sponges. The formation of a sexual body (gemmules) is characteristic of all fresh water species.

**Sexual reproduction.** This type of reproduction occurs in most sponges but it has been reported in only a few species of the order Choriida of the class Demospongiae. The germ cells may arise

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g cutting aluminum wire an hor d to raft of  
non sctos o p oided with fl t g buoys

Organisms associated with sponges Sponges  
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other type of an mal The l r vae of n u opt an  
sects f the f mly S y d e (sponge lla flie ) l ve  
m a d feed pon col nies f fresh water sponges  
S p o also play ho t to myri d f nimal which  
lie in th tu al ca tes of the sp ge or f rm  
burr s f their own Sea an mone z anth ds  
p l ch t ex octop m copepods ha na le amph  
pod h mp li ttle star and fi h l e in spo ge  
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po ge h s b n l ut explo ed The siliceous  
pog S b t d mun l s always l es m hells  
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th ROCKYTHA PARAZOIA (w d n l)  
B bl op phy L H Hyman The l t b t  
L I 1940 v l 5 1959

### Porifera fossils

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b n l th Camb n and o s d g pe  
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Types F il sp nge l ke their l ng repr  
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The Hyal spo gua The Hyalosp ngia (Hex  
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s ONCIAE HEXACTINELLIDA [A 50]

B bl op phy R C M r (ed) T tis on



Fig. 10 Sponge fishing off Florida (After a formal by S. P. Glas, with Peabody Museum of Natural History, Yale University)

ule bundles projecting from the surface. These buds fall off and form new individuals. See REPRODUCTION ANIMAL.

**Regeneration.** Fragments cut from sponge colonies or pieces which break off accidentally in nature can reattach to the substrate and reconstitute functional individuals. Suspensions of sponge cells prepared by squeezing fragments of colonies through fine silk bolting cloth into sea water are also capable of reorganizing into functional sponges. All types of cells normally present in the adult sponge except scleroblasts have been identified in the cell suspensions. Reorganization of the cells to form functional colonies thus involves chiefly a migration of the cells to take up their appropriate positions in the reconstituted organism. The pinacocytes form a peripheral epithelium around the aggregated cells and the various mesenchymal cells form the central mass. The collencytes are active in reforming the inhalant and exhalant canals; the latter of which become lined with pinacocytes. Choanocytes group together to reconstitute flagellated chambers between the inhalant and exhalant canals. Scleroblasts form anew from archaeocytes. Some workers have reported that collar cells differentiate or are phagocytized by pinacocytes or amoebocytes and are formed anew during the reorganization of the sponge.

The initial aggregation of the dissociated cells to form masses results from random movement of archaeocytes, amoebocytes and other cell types in-

cluding choanocytes which have been observed to put forth pseudopodia and which also move short distances by means of their flagella. As cells come into contact with one another they adhere possibly as a result of antigen-antibodylike forces. The presence of homologous antibodies inhibits reaggregation. Neighboring cell aggregates often adhere as well if they come into contact with one another.

Mixed cell suspensions of two species of sponges of different colors may result in an initial intermixture of the cells of the two species, but these later sort out so that the cell aggregates are eventually composed exclusively or predominantly of cells of one species or the other.

**Commercial sponge fisheries.** Although plants and sponges now offer competition, there is still a demand for natural sponges for use by various artisans for surgical purposes and for cleaning automobiles. Commercially valuable sponges are harvested in the eastern part of the Mediterranean Sea off the west coast of Florida and off the Florida Keys in the West Indies and to a limited extent off the Philippine. They are gathered by hooking or harpooning from a boat in shallow waters by nude diving, a method used especially for exploiting cave populations in the Aegean Sea by machine diving with the aid of diving units attached by a life line to an air pump and by dredging, a wasteful method prohibited on most sponge ground.

Artificial propagation of sponges has proven feasible when serious efforts have been made to do so. In the Bahamas sponge cutting, planted on natural bottoms or on concrete disks in carefully selected areas, yielded a harvest of 140,000 sponges during the years 1935-1939. Regrettably, disease, presumably caused by a fungus, spread through the West Indies in 1938-1939, put an end to the cultivation experiments and killed a large percentage of the natural population.

Before World War II the Japanese had achieved considerable success in cultivating sponge in the Marshall and Caroline Islands. Their method in-

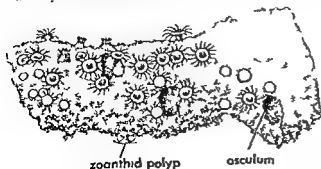


Fig. 11 Zoanthid living in a sponge

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CROCHROME ENZYME HEMOGLOBIN For bio-  
nubes s IRON METABOLISM [R SC]

# Porphyroblast

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p a r t h l t d i u r o l t e k y a n t l l m t e  
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b l t s e g l l y a f e w m i l l i m m c e t s  
m e s a r b t o m e a t t a i n d m e t e r f e r  
l h T h v m y b b d e d b y w e l l d f i d r y s t a l  
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u g r i n f t h m e a l t h t m t h e k  
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o m f g t h O t h e c l e a r l y t r e c t t h f o l

tion and appear to have replaced the rock The  
pre ence f ghostlike traces of foliation in the  
form of stringers and trails of mineral grain  
pas ng uninterrupted through a porphyroblast  
is fu the de ce of replacement

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t h e l u b y t h e f c t t h t t h y h v e d e l p e d n  
l d r k i n r e p t m t m p h s m M o s t m  
m o n l y t h e y d e l o p h t d g s s d u r i n g t h  
l a t e s t a g f r e c r y s t a l l i z a t i o n A t h e o c k b e c o m e s  
r e s t t d c e r t a i n m p n e n t m g r t o f a  
d t d o m b i n e t h e e t o d e v e l p t h e l a r g e  
c r y s t a l s S G N E I S S M E T A M O R P H I C R O C K S P H E  
N O C R Y S T S C H I S T [C A G A]

# Porphyry

An gneous rock char t ized by porphy t c tex  
t e w h c h l a r g e c r y s t l (phenocrysts) are e  
c l o s e d a m t f e r y f i n e g d t o a p h a t i c  
(not visibly crystall e) material

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o t h e r p p h y t c o c k s b y t h b u n d a n c e o f p h e o c y t s a n d b y t h e c u r e n c m a l l i t u s m b d e s (d k e a n d s i l l ) f r m e d t s h a l l o w d e p t h w t h n t h e e a r t h I n t h i s m p p h y r s a r e h y p a b y l k

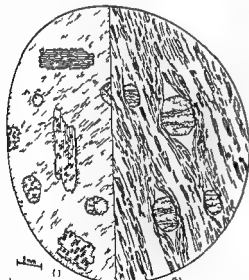
C o m p s i t l l y p o r p h y a n g e w i d e l y b t v a t m y b e d t g u i s h e d b y p r e f i g t t e m t h e c o m m n r o c k n m e w h i t h e p p h y r y m s t l l y e m b l (uch a g r n i t p o r p h y r y b y l t e p p h y y s e t e p p h y r y a n d t a h y t e p p h y r y) S L C N E O U S R O C K S

P p h v e a r e g d t n l t p l t c r c k o n t h e h a d d t l n r o k o t h e o t h e r I n t h e g t l f r m p l p o r p h y r t c t y p m a y l i e c g d (1) p o r p h y r i t c g a n t e (2) g n i t e p p h y r y (3) h y l i t p p h y y (4) p p h y t c t h y l t e (5) n o p h y r e a n d (6) p p h y t c b d n r p p h y t c p i t h s t n e

A k o f g n t i c m p s t w i t h b d a t l m p h y t o f q t n d l k a l f e l d e p i n a f i e g e d m t f m l r m p o s t o n s p p h y r y m r e p f i l l y n i t e p p h y r y G n t p p h y r p e i t p p h y r t c g a n t s t h e g e o f t h e m a t e s d b n d f p h e o y t s d m T h s t h e r c k b m e g i t e m f i l l y a p o r p h y t m n t G t e p p h y y p a t t r y l t p

p h y r y t h g a i e o f t h m i n d a b n d m f p h o c r y t d e T h p n p a l d t t n l i t w e e h y l t e p p h y r y d p p h y t h y o l t e t h m d e f c R h y l t p p h y y s n t p p h y t h y l t t m e P p h y t k w t h g l a m t e k w a t o p h y e W i t h d e e a n m b f p h e o r y t t p h y e p e t o p p h y t b d o p p h y t p t h t e

T h e p h r y t f p p h y t l g e l y f q u r t z d f l d p Q r t w l l f r m e d (e h e d l) h a g a l b p y r m d w h t h t u d e r t h e m c p e b i t d m d



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g a m p l d t h m n p l l y (b) P p h y  
b o a q u a r t m h t l g p p h y b l t f  
g a m e t h m b y p d g p r t h m h  
k e y f t h h i t T h l g t g (g y)  
A o t e s f b t m F f l k f m t m  
o r d e s p e a d d g p d h t r y  
T h e y r e l o s e l y p a k e d w h w d d b y t h g  
c r y s t a l E l o g a r g f i d t t m d  
B e t i r e t u o l g d



1955 V J Okulitch and S J Nelson *Sponges of the Paleozoic Geol Soc Am Mem 67 763-770*  
1957

## Porocephalida

An order of the class Pentastomida in the phylum Arthropoda. The two families comprising this order are the Porocephalidae with 5 subfamilies and 12 genera and the Linguatulidae with 2 genera. Distinctive features of this order include four legged embryos posterior to anation of the female genital pore, highly developed head and hook glands and a long and winding ovary.

The Porocephalidae are cylindrical with club shaped ends. They are provided with either simple hooks or double outer hooks. This family includes the greatest number of pentastomid species. The adult form are parasitic in reptiles, the larval and nymphal forms infest mammals.

The Linguatulidae are flat in shape with simple hooks in the adult state and binate hooks in the nymph. The first described species *Linguatula serena* commonly occurs in the nasal cavities of dogs in Northern Europe. For this species the larvae are approximately 5 millimeters (mm) long. The adult males measure 20 mm and the females 130 mm in length. See PENTASTOMIDA [H K H]

## Porphyrin

A class of red pigmented compounds with a cyclic tetrapyrrolic structure in which the four pyrrole rings are joined through their  $\alpha$  carbon atoms by



Pyr 1

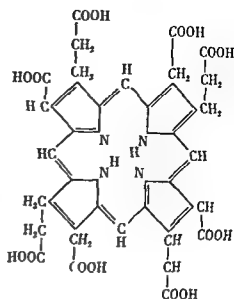
four methene bridges ( $=CH-$ ). The porphyrins form part of the active nucleus of chlorophylls *a* and *b*, hemoglobin, myohemoglobin, cytochromes and the enzymes catalase and peroxidase. The parent substance is synthetic porphyrin in which the hydrogen (H) atoms in the eight  $\beta$  positions on the pyrrole rings are unsubstituted. Naturally occurring porphyrins differ from porphyrin and from each other by various side chains in the eight  $\beta$  positions. Some typical porphyrins are listed as follows:

1 Uroporphyrin occurs naturally and may be synthesized. The substituted groups are four carboxyethyl ( $-CH_2-CH_2-COOH$ ) and four carboxymethyl ( $-CH_2-COOH$ ).

2 Coproporphyrin occurs naturally and may be synthesized. The substituted groups are four carboxyethyl and four methyl ( $-CH_3$ ).

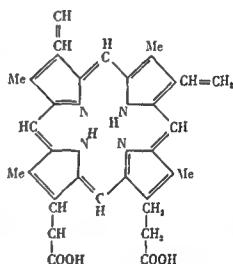
3 Etioporphyrin, a synthetic porphyrin, has four ethyl ( $-CH_2-CH_3$ ) and four methyl groups.

4 Protoporphyrin occurs naturally and may be synthesized. The substituted groups are two car-



Uroporphyrin type I

boxyethyl, four methyl and two vinyl ( $-CH=CH-$ ).

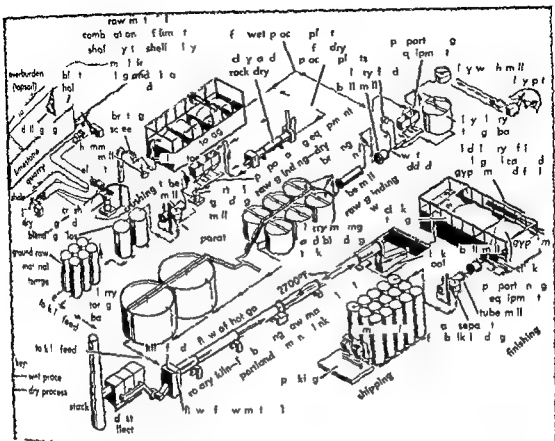


Protoporphyrin type IX

5 Hematoporphyrin, a synthetic porphyrin, has two carboxyethyl, four methyl and two hydroxyethyl ( $-CH_2-CH_2-OH$ ) groups.

Porphyrins with two kinds of substituent groups such as uroporphyrin and etioporphyrin have four structural isomers known as type I-IV. Only type I and III are found in nature. The number of possible isomers for porphyrins with three different substituents, for example protoporphyrin, is 15 (types I-XV). Protoporphyrin type IX has been identified in nature in the free form and in heme, which is the prosthetic group of hemoglobin and other heme proteins. Protoporphyrin type IX corresponds to synthetic etioporphyrin type III.

Porphyrins dissolved in organic solvents and in dilute alkali have a typical absorption spectrum exhibiting four bands in the visible range and a very strong Soret band in the near ultraviolet. In



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 water d wate k 8% other us 17%

[ W L E ]

### Portuguese man of war

41 a Boasting highly ompl col al mar ne  
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t e r e s a d t l l t h e r n y d u t Th t t l e s  
a r r e n s u t g n g c e l l e d m a t t  
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w r r Th t e l f a l a r g p m m a y b  
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t w o p h m o r e b d n t n the G l f M x  
m l l n t o c s a n n m b r n the C l f  
r a n t h l t l l O n d f e q u n t l y d r f i s  
w r t h d f o m e d t a e  
t w m l l p e f f i h f t e g e n s \ o m i s  
t w a m g t h t a c l s f t h P r t g u e m n



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square or hexagonal outline. Individual phenocrysts may show more or less rounding or resorption with deep embayments. Alkali feldspar is usually euhedral, sanidine, orthoclase, or microperthite. Plagioclase occurs more in association with phenocrysts of hornblende or other dark-colored (mafic) minerals. Porphyritic rocks with predominantly mafic phenocrysts (olivine, pyroxene, amphibole, and biotite) are commonly classed as lamprophyres. See LAMPROPHYRE.

Outside the United States, it is common to further restrict the term porphyry to those rocks in which the feldspar phenocrysts are principally alkali feldspar. Rocks with dominantly plagioclase phenocrysts are called porphyrites.

Porphyries occur as marginal phases of medium-sized igneous bodies (stocks, laccoliths) or as apophyses (offshoots) projecting from such bodies into the surrounding rocks. They are also abundant as dikes cutting compositionally equivalent plutonic rock or as dikes, sills, and laccoliths injected into the adjacent older rocks. [C. A. C.]

## Porpoise

Any of several small whales of the family Phocaenidae found in all the oceans of the world except the polar waters. The porpoises, like other whales, have no hindlimbs. The forelimbs are reduced to small paddles; the caudal region is modified into a pair of lateral flukes; the neck region is shortened, and the eyes are small. Porpoises have many small teeth set all along the jaws; the dorsal



The common porpoise *Phocaena phocaena* a length to 6 ft. (From E. L. Palmer, *Feldbook of Natural History*, McGraw-Hill, 1949).

fin is low or lacking; the head is blunt and rounded without a beak. Porpoises attain a maximal length of 8 ft. and weigh not more than 120 lb. The harbor porpoise, *Phocaena phocaena*, is common along both coasts of the United States. It is 4-6 ft. long, black on the back with pink sides and a white belly. The Pacific race is considered by some students to be a separate species, *P. vomerina*. See MAMMALIA, WHALE. [J. D. B.]

## Portland cement

A hydraulic cement consisting mainly of calcined silicates of calcium. Portland cement mixed with water and sand and gravel (or aggregate) or other substances is a common material of construction. See CONCRETE.

**Manufacture.** The illustration shows the manufacture of portland cement. The raw materials are principally calcareous materials such as limestone,

marl, chalk, or shell and argillaceous materials such as clay, shale, or iron blast-furnace slag. The chemical limitations in the specifications are such that the proportions of calcium oxide, silica, alumina, and ferric oxide must be maintained within narrowly defined limits, and other constituents such as magnesia and alkalis must not exceed specified limits. These restrictions necessitate at times the introduction of other material, such as high-calcium limestone and iron ore, to produce white portland cement materials of very low ferric oxide content must be used. The raw materials are blended and ground to a fineness approximately the same as cement. The raw materials may be ground dry (the dry process) or in water (the wet process). The pulverized mixture is then burned in large rotary kilns at 2500-2800° C. to produce portland cement clinker. The fuel may be coal, oil, or gas.

Calcium sulfate (gypsum) is added in a quantity ranging from 4 to 8% by weight of the clinker. It serves to regulate the setting time, strength, and other properties of cement-water mixture. The clinker and gypsum are then ground to such a fineness that about 90% will pass through a No. 200 sieve that is a wire or cloth mesh having 200 openings per square inch.

**Types of cement.** Heat is liberated during the process of hydration and hardening of cement-water mixtures. It is desirable to minimize this heat liberation in mass concrete, such as large dams, so as to reduce the thermal stress and cracking that may occur as the exterior surface cools while the interior of the mass is at a higher temperature. Some types of cement are susceptible to chemical reactions with sulfate waters, which can cause expansion and deterioration of mortars and concretes. The heat of hydration and sulfate resistance are controlled by adjusting the chemical composition of the cement. High early strength is attained in part by composition but largely by finer grinding of the cement.

The American Society for Testing Materials specifies the chemical and physical requirements for five types of portland cement and describes the purpose of each.

Type I is for use in general concrete construction when the special properties specified for types II, III, IV, and V are not required.

Type II is for use in general concrete construction exposed to moderate sulfate action or where moderate heat of hydration is required.

Type III is for use when high early strength is required.

Type IV is for use when a low heat of hydration is required.

Type V is for use when high sulfate resistance is required.

There are also a number of modifications of portland cement or mixtures containing portland cement. See AIR-ENTRAINING PORTLAND CEMENT, CEMENT.

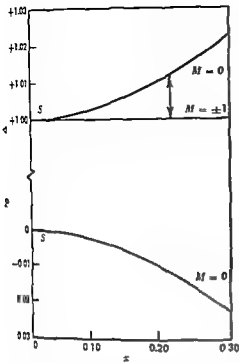


Fig. 1. Variation of the magnetic field  $H$  (in Gauss) with the distance  $x$  (in cm) for different values of the magnetic field  $H$ . The curves are calculated for  $\mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7}$  H/m,  $\mu_1 = 1$ ,  $\mu_2 = 1$ ,  $\mu_3 = 1$ ,  $\mu_4 = 1$ ,  $\mu_5 = 1$ ,  $\mu_6 = 1$ ,  $\mu_7 = 1$ ,  $\mu_8 = 1$ ,  $\mu_9 = 1$ ,  $\mu_{10} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{11} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{12} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{13} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{14} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{15} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{16} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{17} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{18} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{19} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{20} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{21} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{22} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{23} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{24} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{25} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{26} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{27} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{28} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{29} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{30} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{31} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{32} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{33} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{34} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{35} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{36} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{37} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{38} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{39} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{40} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{41} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{42} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{43} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{44} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{45} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{46} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{47} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{48} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{49} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{50} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{51} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{52} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{53} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{54} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{55} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{56} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{57} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{58} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{59} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{60} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{61} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{62} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{63} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{64} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{65} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{66} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{67} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{68} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{69} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{70} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{71} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{72} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{73} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{74} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{75} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{76} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{77} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{78} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{79} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{80} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{81} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{82} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{83} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{84} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{85} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{86} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{87} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{88} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{89} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{90} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{91} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{92} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{93} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{94} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{95} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{96} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{97} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{98} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{99} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{100} = 1$ .

(a) The magnetic field  $H$  (in Gauss) with the distance  $x$  (in cm) for different values of the magnetic field  $H$ .

$$H = \mu_0 \left( \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_1 \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_2 \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_3 \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_4 \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_5 \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_6 \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_7 \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_8 \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_9 \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{10} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{11} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{12} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{13} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{14} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{15} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{16} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{17} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{18} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{19} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{20} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{21} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{22} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{23} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{24} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{25} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{26} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{27} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{28} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{29} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{30} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{31} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{32} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{33} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{34} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{35} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{36} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{37} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{38} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{39} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{40} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{41} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{42} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{43} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{44} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{45} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{46} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{47} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{48} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{49} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{50} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{51} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{52} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{53} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{54} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{55} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{56} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{57} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{58} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{59} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{60} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{61} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{62} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{63} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{64} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{65} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{66} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{67} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{68} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{69} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{70} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{71} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{72} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{73} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{74} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{75} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{76} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{77} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{78} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{79} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{80} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{81} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{82} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{83} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{84} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{85} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{86} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{87} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{88} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{89} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{90} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{91} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{92} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{93} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{94} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{95} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{96} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{97} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{98} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{99} \frac{H}{\mu_0} + \mu_{100} \frac{H}{\mu_0} \right) \quad (4)$$

the magnetic field  $H$  (in Gauss) with the distance  $x$  (in cm) for different values of the magnetic field  $H$ . The curves are calculated for  $\mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7}$  H/m,  $\mu_1 = 1$ ,  $\mu_2 = 1$ ,  $\mu_3 = 1$ ,  $\mu_4 = 1$ ,  $\mu_5 = 1$ ,  $\mu_6 = 1$ ,  $\mu_7 = 1$ ,  $\mu_8 = 1$ ,  $\mu_9 = 1$ ,  $\mu_{10} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{11} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{12} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{13} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{14} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{15} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{16} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{17} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{18} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{19} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{20} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{21} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{22} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{23} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{24} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{25} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{26} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{27} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{28} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{29} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{30} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{31} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{32} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{33} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{34} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{35} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{36} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{37} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{38} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{39} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{40} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{41} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{42} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{43} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{44} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{45} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{46} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{47} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{48} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{49} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{50} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{51} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{52} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{53} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{54} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{55} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{56} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{57} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{58} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{59} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{60} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{61} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{62} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{63} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{64} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{65} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{66} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{67} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{68} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{69} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{70} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{71} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{72} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{73} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{74} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{75} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{76} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{77} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{78} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{79} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{80} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{81} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{82} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{83} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{84} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{85} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{86} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{87} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{88} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{89} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{90} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{91} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{92} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{93} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{94} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{95} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{96} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{97} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{98} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{99} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{100} = 1$ .

$$\Delta = (2.0333 \pm 0.0001) \times 10^{-10} \text{ M / } \mu_0$$

The magnetic field  $H$  (in Gauss) with the distance  $x$  (in cm) for different values of the magnetic field  $H$ . The curves are calculated for  $\mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7}$  H/m,  $\mu_1 = 1$ ,  $\mu_2 = 1$ ,  $\mu_3 = 1$ ,  $\mu_4 = 1$ ,  $\mu_5 = 1$ ,  $\mu_6 = 1$ ,  $\mu_7 = 1$ ,  $\mu_8 = 1$ ,  $\mu_9 = 1$ ,  $\mu_{10} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{11} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{12} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{13} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{14} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{15} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{16} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{17} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{18} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{19} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{20} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{21} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{22} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{23} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{24} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{25} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{26} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{27} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{28} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{29} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{30} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{31} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{32} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{33} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{34} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{35} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{36} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{37} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{38} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{39} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{40} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{41} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{42} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{43} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{44} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{45} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{46} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{47} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{48} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{49} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{50} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{51} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{52} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{53} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{54} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{55} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{56} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{57} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{58} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{59} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{60} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{61} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{62} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{63} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{64} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{65} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{66} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{67} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{68} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{69} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{70} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{71} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{72} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{73} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{74} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{75} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{76} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{77} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{78} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{79} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{80} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{81} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{82} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{83} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{84} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{85} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{86} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{87} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{88} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{89} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{90} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{91} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{92} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{93} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{94} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{95} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{96} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{97} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{98} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{99} = 1$ ,  $\mu_{100} = 1$ .

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B l o g a p h y E D Benedett a d H C Corben  
P tronium An R t N i l S i 4 191-218  
1954 M De n t c h Annihil t ion of positron  
Prog i Nucl e Phys 3 131 138 1953  
S Fluegge (ed) H ndbu h der Phy k vol 35  
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## Postglacial vegetation and climate

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of war with apparent immunity. The fish seems to be accepted and protected by the man of war as a lure to attract other larger fishes. The *Nomeus* in turn is thought to feed on crabs left over from the kills made by the man of war. This is frequently cited as a prime example of symbiosis. Some workers think that *Nomeus* is immune to the stings of the Portuguese man of war because it feeds on the animals caught in its tentacles. See HYDROZOA.

[J D B]

## Positron

An elementary particle with mass equal to that of the electron and positive charge equal in magnitude to the electron's negative charge. The positron is thus the antiparticle (charge conjugate particle) to the electron (see ELECTRON, ELEMENTARY PARTICLE). Its existence was predicted by P. A. M. Dirac (see QUANTUM THEORY, RELATIVISTIC). It was first observed by C. D. Anderson in 1932. The positron has the same spin and statistics as the electron. Positrons like electrons appear as decay products of many heavier particles. Electron-positron pairs are produced by high energy photons in matter. See PAIR PRODUCTION (ELECTRON-POSITRON).

A positron is itself stable but cannot exist indefinitely in the presence of matter for it will ultimately collide with an electron. The two particles will be annihilated as a result of this collision and photons will be created. However, a positron can first become bound to an electron to form a short-lived atom termed positronium. See POSITRONIUM.

The virtual production of electron-positron pairs by an electromagnetic field produces a polarization of the vacuum. This results in effects such as the scattering of light by light and modification of the electrostatic Coulomb field at short distances. See QUANTUM ELECTRODYNAMICS. [C S C]

**Bibliography** W. Heiler, *The Quantum Theory of Electrodynamics*, 3d ed. 1954; J. M. Jauch and F. Rohrlich, *The Theory of Photons and Electrons*, 1955.

## Positronium

The bound state of an electron and a positron. Positronium was discovered by studies of the so-called annihilation radiation from positrons stopped in gases. It is formed in a collision between a positron and a gas atom which results in the capture of an atomic electron by the positron. The positron is the antiparticle to the electron and hence has an inertial mass equal to that of the electron, a positive charge equal in magnitude to the electron's charge, and a spin of  $\hbar/2$  where  $\hbar$  is Planck's constant divided by  $2\pi$ . See POSITRON.

Positronium is of particular interest because it is the two-body system to which quantum electrodynamics is applicable and its study has served as an important confirmation of the theory of quantum electrodynamics. See QUANTUM ELECTRODYNAMICS.

No states of positronium other than the ground  $n = 1$  state ( $n = 1, 2, 3$  being the principal quantum number) have yet been found. Studies of positron annihilation in solids and liquids indicate that a perturbed form of positronium exists under certain conditions.

**Energy levels.** The approximate energy levels of positronium can be calculated from the Schrödinger equation with the nonrelativistic Hamiltonian  $H_0$

$$H_0 = \frac{p_1^2}{2m} + \frac{p_2^2}{2m} - \frac{e^2}{r} \quad (1)$$

in which  $p_1(p_2)$  is the electron (positron) linear momentum,  $m$  is the mass of the electron or positron,  $-e$  is the charge of the electron, and  $r$  is the distance between the positron and the electron (see QUANTUM THEORY, NONRELATIVISTIC). The energy levels of the bound states are given by

$$W = -\frac{\pi^2 m e^4}{\hbar^2 n^2} = -\frac{r_p}{n^2} \quad (2)$$

The quantity  $r_p$  is defined by Eq. (2) as the Rydberg constant for positronium (see RYDBERG CONSTANT). The binding energies  $W$  of positronium are one-half the corresponding binding energies of the hydrogen atom (if the proton-to-electron mass ratio is considered infinite). In particular, the ionization energy of positronium (the binding energy of the ground  $n = 1$  state) is 6.8 eV.

Fine structure to the energy levels of positronium as given by Eq. (2) of the order  $\alpha r_p$  ( $\alpha = e/\hbar c \cong 1/137$  is called the fine structure constant) arises from relativistic effects including the electron and positron spin magnetic moments and from the interaction with the electromagnetic field which causes electron-positron pair annihilation. Since the electron and positron intrinsic spin angular momenta are  $\frac{1}{2}$  in units of  $\hbar$ , the total spin angular momentum quantum number  $S$  of positronium can be either 0 (singlet state, parapositronium) or 1 (triplet state, orthopositronium). For each  $n$  value, positronium can exist in either a singlet or a triplet state. The orbital angular momentum quantum number  $L$  can assume the values  $L = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$ . In particular, the ground  $n = 1$  state of positronium is split into two levels,  $S_0$  and  $S_1$ , which are separated in energy by the amount

$$W(^3S_1) - W(^1S_0) = \alpha^2 r_p \left[ \frac{7}{3} - \frac{2\alpha}{\pi} \left( \frac{16}{9} + \ln 2 \right) \right] \quad (3)$$

The term of order  $\alpha r_p$  arises from virtual quantum electrodynamics processes. This energy separation is often called the hyperfine structure of the ground state of positronium, corresponding to a frequency difference  $\Delta$  of  $2.0331 \times 10^6$  Mc/sec. See FINE STRUCTURE (SPECTRAL LINES), HYPERFINE STRUCTURE.

The dependence of the energy level of positronium on an external magnetic field (Zeeman effect)



ous forest region. These are properly considered as remnants left behind from a colder time.

The record was complicated however by the presence of disjuncts appropriate to warmer and drier conditions than now exist, such as prairie inclusions in the deciduous forest regions of North America and Mediterranean plants in northwestern Europe. Furthermore the European peat beds contained strata indicating that the time of glacial retreat had been marked by fluctuations in moisture and temperature and was not a simple gradual warming down to the present.

To reconstruct an orderly history requires the study of representative plant remains in close stratigraphic sequence. These requirements are met by the fact that pollen grains are well preserved in lake sediment, both inorganic and organic. The statistical study of such evidence begun by L. von Post in Sweden in 1916 is the most substantial source of present information. See PALYNOLOGY.

Broadly speaking the results obtained confirm the hypothesis advanced by the Norwegian Axel Blytt in 1876 on the basis of his study of Scandinavian peat beds. There are however many local modifications due to soils, topography, rates of plant migration, and making of minor changes by climatic extremes. Blytt's ideas were for the time and other reasons the source of prolonged controversy. He divided the glacial time into the following phases: Pre-Boreal, cold and wet; Boreal, cool and dry; Atlantic, warm and moist; Sub-Boreal, warm and dry; Sub-Atlantic, cooler and moist. Recent work suggests that the Boreal in northern Europe was warmer than the Sub-Boreal. The reverse seems to be true in North America but further study is needed.

Until recently the only method of dating the changes was by means of banded sediments or varves, and by estimates of the rate of sedimentation in particular of peat formation. Both methods considerably lessened the previously accepted time span and gave results of an order of magnitude now confirmed by the precise physical measurements of radiocarbon change.

**Vegetation and climatic phases.** Four general principles emerge from the data now at hand: (1) The general pattern of climate following ice retreat is that of an irregularly sinusoidal graph

so far as moisture is concerned. (2) This pattern occurs against a background of temperature gradients. (3) The maximum number of vegetation climatic phases occur near the glacial boundary, the number decreasing toward the present areas of remnant ice. (4) Moist phases appear to coincide with time of ice accumulation and advance, and phases with ice wastage and retreat. Whether or not the phases are reversed within the tropics is under discussion.

Also under discussion is the extent to which the major zone of vegetation—such as tundra, conifer forest, deciduous forest—were displaced beyond the ice border. Work now being done in the alpine and mountainous Southwest based on edimes in old lake basins shows clearly the downward migration of high altitude woodland and forest during glacial times and its subsequent replacement by semidesert or desert vegetation.

The accompanying table although much simplified and omitting certain interesting fluctuations of the past 2000 years illustrates the general character of postglaciation change. See PALEOBOTANY, PLANT GEOGRAPHY, VEGETATION ZONES. [P.B.S.]

**Bibliography.** E. L. Braun, *Deciduous Forests East of North America*, 1950. Pierre Dansereau, *Biogeography*, 1957. H. Codwin, *The History of the British Flora*, 1956. P. B. Sears, *Xerotherm theory*, *Botan. Rev.* 8(10): 68-736, 1942.

## Postulate

In a formal deductive system a proposition accepted without proof from which other propositions are deduced by the conventional methods of formal logic. There is a certain arbitrariness as to which propositions are to be treated as postulates because when certain proved propositions are treated as postulates, other propositions which were originally postulates often become proved propositions.

The question of objective truth does not arise in connection with a postulate, although the term postulate is sometimes loosely used in connection with tentative assumptions with regard to matters of fact. In strict usage postulate is nearly equivalent to axiom, although axiom is often loosely used to denote a truth supposed to be self-evident. See LOGIC. [P.W.V.]

Postglacial phases in North America

Phase	Moisture	Temperature	Ice	New England	Southern Ohio	Northwestern Ohio	Alaska
8	—	W	R				Tundra-spruce
7	+	W±	A	Hick-chestnut	Beech maple	Beech maple	(Chickadee)
6	—	W+	R	Oak hickory	Oak hickory	Oak hickory	Spruce
	+	W±	A	Oak-fir	Beech hickory	Beech hemlock	—
4	—	?	H	Pine	Pine	Pine	—
3	+	C	A	Spruce	Spruce	Spruce	—
	—	C	R	Tundra	Pine	(Glaciation)	—
1	+	C	A	(Glaciation)	Spruce	—	—

Symbols: Phase numbers unofficial for convenience only. Moisture: (+) moist phase, (—) dry phase. Temperature: C—cold, W—warm, Ice: A—advance, R—retreat.





stretch or myotatic reflex as it is called provides an automatically regulated mechanism for upright posture which functions effectively regardless of varying demands placed on the limb musculature.

The stretch reflex is responsible for muscle tone that is the resistance of the muscle to passive elongation. When the stretch reflex is absent the muscle is hypotonic or flaccid; when stretch reflexes are exaggerated as in decerebrate preparations the muscles are hypertonic or spastic.

A quantitative estimate of the sensitivity and effectiveness of the stretch reflex can be obtained from experiments employing the fall table of Sherrington, the important feature of which is a movable top which can be lowered for measured distances. The leg of an experimental animal is fixed rigidly to a stand on the table and a muscle is dissected free and attached to a tension recording device mounted on a stand independent of the movable table top. When the table top is lowered the muscle is stretched and the tension developed in the muscle recorded. Part of the tension is caused by the elasticity of the muscle; this moiety can be determined by denervating the muscle and repeating the stretch. The difference in tension developed in the innervated and denervated muscle gives a measure of the tension caused by active reflex contraction. In the quadriceps (knee extensor) muscle of the cat a stretch of 8.0 mm gives rise to an active reflex tension of 3-3.5 kg.

**Stretch receptor and its control.** The sense organ of muscle which mediates the myotatic reflex is the muscle spindle. This organ consists of six or seven small specialized muscle fibers called intrafusal fibers. They are enclosed in a connective tissue capsule, the ends of which attach to the tendon or to the connective tissue surrounding the ordinary muscle fibers (extrafusal fibers). Afferent nerve fibers penetrate the capsule and terminate in a helical arrangement (annulospiral ending) or a bushy ending (flower spray ending) on the equatorial region of the intrafusal fibers. The equatorial region of the intrafusal fibers is noncontractile but the two end or poles of the fibers are contractile and receive motor innervation from small diameter efferent fibers which penetrate the capsule along with the sensory fibers. The spindles which lie in parallel with the extrafusal fibers are subjected to stretch when the muscle is elongated and the resultant distortion of the nerve endings excites them to discharge impulses. However, if the extrafusal fibers contract and the muscle is allowed to shorten the intrafusal fiber becomes slack and the endings cease firing. The slack can be taken up if the small motor fibers supplying the contractile poles of the intrafusal muscle fibers are activated. The small motor fibers (3-6  $\mu$  in diameter) are histologically and functionally distinct from the large motor fiber (9-13  $\mu$  in diameter) which innervate the extrafusal fiber. The former which comprise about 30% of the fibers in the ventral root of the spinal cord are devoted exclusively to the innervation of intrafusal fibers and are therefore

called fusimotor fibers. Fusimotor excitation develops no measurable tension in the muscle because the contractile tension of the small intrafusal fiber is negligible compared to that of the extrafusal fibers. Instead the function of the fusimotor fibers appears to be that of a sensitivity control for the spindles. When fusimotor activity is great the spindles are kept taut and light muscle stretches elicit a high rate of afferent discharge. In the absence of fusimotor activity the spindles are slack and greater muscle stretches are required to elicit a comparable discharge. The stretch reflex mechanism therefore includes a loop from muscle spindle to motoneuron causing extrafusal contraction and spindle silence and one from sense organ to fusimotoneurons. The afferent path which drives the fusimotoneurons are not entirely understood. Part of the drive is through segmental pathways; noxious stimulation of the skin is particularly effective in increasing fusimotor discharge and secondarily increasing the spindle afferent discharge to stretch. Certain descending paths from suprasegmental structures also exert a marked influence on fusimotoneurons.

**Regulation of the stretch reflex.** In the decerebrate preparation the stretch reflex is abnormally sensitive with the result that slight stretches induce inordinately large efferent discharges. This hypersensitivity is ascribed to the interruption by the intercollicular action of pathway originating rostral (anterior) to the action and exerting directly or indirectly an inhibitory influence on the segmental stretch reflex mechanism. The origin of these pathways is not entirely clear. In man and higher primates spasticity, a syndrome similar to decerebrate rigidity, follows lesions of the rostral precentral cortex. Probably the inhibitory system originates from several supracollicular structures.

Removal of an inhibitory system alone will not cause exaggerated reflex response any more than removing the brakes from a stalled car will make it go. The question of what drives the motoneuron released from supracollicular inhibition is considered next. The segmental afferents from the stretch receptors provide part of the drive but suprasegmental structures also contribute because spinal transection abolishes decerebrate rigidity as readily as dorsal root section. Between the spinal cord and the olivuli there must be a group of neurons or a center which facilitate the segmental stretch reflex arc. Experiments indicate that facilitatory impulse originate in the medulla and reach the spinal level partly by way of the reticulospinal tract and partly by the reticulospinal path. At the spinal level the impulses ensitize the stretch reflex by converging with segmental afferent from stretch receptors on motoneuron and by driving the fusimotoneuron, thus increasing the sensitivity of the spindles to stretch and augmenting the segmental afferent input to the motoneuron.

**Lengthening reaction.** When the limb of a decerebrate cat is forcibly flexed resistance develops and increases throughout the initial part of the



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**Lengthening reaction** When the limb of a decerebrate cat is reflexively flexed and extended and increases throughout the initial part of the

Property	Temperature		Metric (cgs) units	British (cgs) units
	C	F		
Density	100	1	0.819 g/cm	51.1 lb/ft
	400	11	0.747 g/cm	46.7 lb/ft
	700	129	0.666 g/cm	4.1 lb/ft
Melting point	63.7	147		
Boiling point	60	1400		
Heat of fusion	63.7	147	14.6 cal/g	6.3 Btu/lb
Heat of vaporization	63.7	1400	496 cal/g	893 Btu/lb
Viscosity	70	158	5.15 mll poise	65.5 k tieu t
	400		2.58 mll poises	35 k tieu ts
	800	147	1.36 mll poises	k tieu ts
Vapor pressure	34	618	1 mm	0.019 lb/in
	696	1283	400 mm	7.7 lb/in
Thermal conductivity	00	00	0.017 1/(sec)(cm)(C)	6.0 Btu/(ft)(ft)(F)
	400	7	0.09 cal/(sec)(cm)(C)	1 Btu/(ft)(ft)(F)
Heat capacity	00	39	0.19 cal/(g)(C)	0.19 Btu/(lb)(F)
	800	147	0.19 1/(g)(C)	0.19 Btu/(lb)(F)
Electrical resistivity	150	30	18.7 m ohm-cm	
	300	57	8 m ohm-cm	
Surface tension	100-10		Abot 80 dynes/cm	

Chemical properties Potassium is an active metal that reacts violently with the oxygen in the air to form the monoxide  $K_2O$  and the peroxide  $K_2O_2$ . It also reacts with water to form potassium hydroxide  $KOH$  and hydrogen gas  $H_2$ .

Potassium does not react with nitrogen at room temperature. It reacts with hydrogen at 300-400°C. It forms the least stable of the alkali metal hydrides.

There is a reaction between potassium and water at room temperature. The reaction is exothermic and produces potassium hydroxide and hydrogen gas. The reaction is more vigorous with acids.

Potassium reacts with the halogens to form potassium halides. It reacts with sulfur to form potassium polysulfides. It reacts with phosphorus to form phosphides.

Potassium reacts with ammonia to form potassium amide. It reacts with carbon to form potassium cyanide. It reacts with nitrogen to form potassium cyanide.

Potassium reacts with the elements of the periodic table to form various compounds. It reacts with the elements of the periodic table to form various compounds.

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Reaction with the common elements

Availability Potassium metal is available in a grade of 99+ percent purity with sodium. The annual production is about 50,000 lb/year. The price of the metal is about \$4.75 per lb. The price of potassium salts is about \$1.00 per lb. Potassium salts are more expensive than the sodium salts. Potassium hydride is about 9¢ per lb (1958) compared to 2.3¢ per lb for the corresponding sodium hydride.

Handling Handling of potassium metal must be done with care. It reacts with water and air. It reacts with acids. It reacts with the elements of the periodic table. It reacts with the elements of the periodic table.

General properties Potassium is a soft, silvery metal. It has a low melting point. It has a low boiling point. It has a low density. It has a low atomic weight.

Principal compounds Potassium hydroxide  $KOH$  is a strong base. Potassium carbonate  $K_2CO_3$  is a weak base. Potassium chloride  $KCl$  is a salt. Potassium bromide  $KBr$  is a salt. Potassium iodide  $KI$  is a salt. Potassium nitrate  $KNO_3$  is a salt. Potassium sulfate  $K_2SO_4$  is a salt. Potassium phosphate  $K_3PO_4$  is a salt. Potassium silicate  $K_2SiO_3$  is a salt. Potassium borate  $K_2B_4O_7$  is a salt. Potassium manganate  $K_2MnO_4$  is a salt. Potassium chromate  $K_2CrO_4$  is a salt. Potassium dichromate  $K_2Cr_2O_7$  is a salt. Potassium permanganate  $KMnO_4$  is a salt. Potassium periodate  $KIO_4$  is a salt. Potassium selenate  $K_2SeO_4$  is a salt. Potassium tellurate  $K_2TeO_4$  is a salt. Potassium molybdate  $K_2MoO_4$  is a salt. Potassium tungstate  $K_2WO_4$  is a salt. Potassium vanadate  $KVO_3$  is a salt. Potassium niobate  $KNbO_3$  is a salt. Potassium tantalum pentoxide  $KTaO_5$  is a salt. Potassium antimonate  $K_3SbO_4$  is a salt. Potassium arsenate  $K_3AsO_4$  is a salt. Potassium borate  $K_2B_4O_7$  is a salt. Potassium manganate  $K_2MnO_4$  is a salt. Potassium chromate  $K_2CrO_4$  is a salt. Potassium dichromate  $K_2Cr_2O_7$  is a salt. Potassium permanganate  $KMnO_4$  is a salt. Potassium periodate  $KIO_4$  is a salt. Potassium selenate  $K_2SeO_4$  is a salt. Potassium tellurate  $K_2TeO_4$  is a salt. Potassium molybdate  $K_2MoO_4$  is a salt. Potassium tungstate  $K_2WO_4$  is a salt. Potassium vanadate  $KVO_3$  is a salt. Potassium niobate  $KNbO_3$  is a salt. Potassium tantalum pentoxide  $KTaO_5$  is a salt. Potassium antimonate  $K_3SbO_4$  is a salt. Potassium arsenate  $K_3AsO_4$  is a salt.

maximum deviation they swing rapidly back in the direction of rotation to the forward looking position (quick phase) the process repeated over and over causes an oscillation of the eyes. When the head reaches constant velocity  $\omega$   $t_{\text{amus}}$  disappears only to reappear when rotation ceases in the latter instance however the quick phase is in the direction opposite to the original direction of rotation.

Nystagmus may be horizontal vertical or rotatory depending upon the position of the head during angular acceleration When the head is bent forward 30° the horizontal semicircular canals are in the plane of rotation and the nystagmus is horizontal When the head is flexed 90° onto the shoulder the vertical canals are in the plane of rotation and nystagmus is vertical With the head bent forward 120° or backward 60° rotation causes rotatory nystagmus See MUSCLE MUSCLE (BIO PHYSICS) NERVOUS SYSTEM PSYCHOLOGY PHYSIOLOGICAL AND EXPERIMENTAL [HDP TCR]

## Potassium

With an atomic number of 19 and an atomic weight of 39.1 potassium K stands in the middle of the alkali metal family below sodium and above rubidium in group Ia of the periodic table of the elements. It is a lightweight soft low melting reactive metal. In 1807 Sir Humphry Davy isolated metallic potassium by electrolysis for the first time. It is very similar to sodium in its behavior in metallic form and its uses are limited as a consequence of the availability of low cost sodium in large volume.

The periodic table displays elements from Hydrogen (H) to Oganesson (Og). Each element cell includes its symbol, atomic number, and name. The table is organized into periods (rows) and groups (columns). The noble gases are highlighted in yellow, halogens in orange, chalcogens in green, transition metals in blue, and main group elements in pink. The lanthanide and actinide series are shown as separate rows at the bottom.

**Uses** Potassium chloride finds its main use in fertilizer mixtures. It also serves as the raw material for the manufacture of other potassium compounds.

Potassium hydroxide is used in the manufacture of liquid soaps and potassium carbonate in making soft soaps. Potassium carbonate is also an important raw material for the glass industry.

Potassium nitrate is used in matches in pyrotechnics and in similar items which require an oxidizing agent.

**Occurrence** Potassium is a very abundant element ranking seventh among all the elements in the earth's crust 25% of which is potassium in combined form. Only oxygen, silicon, aluminum,

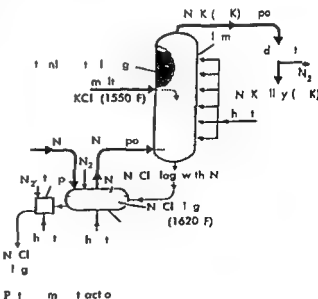
iron calcium and sodium are more abundant. Sea water contains 380 parts per million making potassium the sixth most plentiful element in solution being exceeded only by chlorine sodium magnesium sulfur and calcium.

Potassium compounds are found in the historically important deposits at Stassfurt in Germany which consist of sylvite (KCl) and carnallite ( $MgCl_2 \cdot KCl$ ). In the United States extensive potassium deposits containing sylvite and polyhalite ( $2CaSO_4 \cdot K_2SO_4 \cdot 2H_2O$ ) are located at Searles Lake, California and Carlsbad, New Mexico. In addition potassium salts are found in France, Spain, Poland, the Soviet Union, and in the Dead Sea.

**Metallurgical extraction** Commercial potash is melted in a gas fired melt pot and is fed to the exchange column (see illustration) in the commercial manufacture of potassium metal by thermochemical means. The molten potash and chloride flows down over steel Raschig rings in the packed column. It is met by a condensing column vapors coming from a gas fired reboiler. An equilibrium is set up between the two giving sodium chloride and potassium metal as the products. The sodium chloride formed is continuously withdrawn at the base of the apparatus. The column operating conditions may be varied to give practically pure potassium metal as an overhead product or to vaporize sodium along with the potassium to give sodium potassium (NaK) alloys of varying compositions as products. Potassium metal of 99.95% purity can be produced continuously.

Unlike lithium and sodium which are produced by electrolysis, potassium reacts with carbon electrodes and also can form an explosive carbonyl on electrolysis (or in thermochemical method using arbor reduction). Therefore the thermochemical route using the reaction between metallic sodium and potassium chloride has proven more practical and economic.

**Physical properties** The physical properties of potassium metal are summarized in the table



Physical properties of potassium metal				
Property	Temperature		Metric (scientific) units	British (engineering) units
	C	F		
Density	100	1	0.819 g/cm <sup>3</sup>	51.1 lb/ft <sup>3</sup>
	400	75	0.717 g/cm <sup>3</sup>	16.7 lb/ft <sup>3</sup>
	700	129	0.676 g/cm <sup>3</sup>	4 lb/ft <sup>3</sup>
Melting point	63.7	147		
Boiling point	60	1400		
Heat of fusion	63.7	147	11.6 cal/g	26.3 Btu/lb
Heat of vaporization	63.7	1400	196 cal/g	893 Btu/lb
Velocity	70	128	5.15 m/sec	65 knots
	100	7	58 m/sec	35 knots
	800	147	1.36 m/sec	3 knots
Vapor pressure	31	618	1 mm	0.019 lb/in <sup>2</sup>
	696	1285	400 mm	7.7 lb/in <sup>2</sup>
Thermal conductivity	00	39	0.017 cal/(sec)(cm)(°C)	6.0 Btu/(h)(ft)(°F)
	400	7	0.09 cal/(sec)(cm)(°C)	1.7 Btu/(h)(ft)(°F)
Heat capacity	00	39	0.19 cal/(g)(°C)	0.19 Btu/(lb)(°F)
	800	147	0.19 cal/(g)(°C)	0.19 Btu/(lb)(°F)
Electrical resistivity	150	30	18.7 microhm-cm	
	300	572	8 microhm-cm	
Surface tension	100-150		About 80 dyne/cm	

**Chemical properties.** Potassium is even more reactive than sodium. It reacts vigorously with the atmosphere in the form of the monoxide  $K_2O$  and the peroxide  $K_2O_2$ . In the presence of excess oxygen it readily forms the peroxide  $K_2O_2$  (formerly believed to be  $KO$ ).

Potassium does not react with nitrogen to form a stable nitride at temperatures up to 200°C and only at 300-400°C it forms the last stable hydride of alkali metal.

The reaction between potassium and water is violent at temperatures as low as -100°C. The hydrogen evolved is ignited by the reaction at room temperature. Reaction with quaternary ammonium salts and organic phosphides is violent, forming phosphides with the characteristic indefinite solid solution with the potassium interposed between the layers of phosphide.

Potassium reacts violently with the halogens. Lithium and sodium react only superficially with the halogens but potassium reacts with them to form potassium halides.

The reaction of potassium with ammonia gives potassium amide  $KNH_2$  and hydride  $KH$ . Potassium reacts with carbon to form potassium carbide  $K_4C$  and potassium cyanide  $KCN$ .

Potassium reacts with carbon monoxide to form potassium carbonyl  $K_2C_2O$  and potassium suboxide  $K_2O$ . Potassium reacts with carbon dioxide to form potassium carbonate  $K_2CO_3$  and potassium oxide  $K_2O$ . Potassium reacts with carbon disulfide to form potassium polysulfide  $K_2S_x$  and potassium polysulfide  $K_2S_x$ . Potassium reacts with carbon tetrachloride to form potassium tetrachloride  $K_2CCl_4$  and potassium chloride  $KCl$ . Potassium reacts with carbon tetrachloride to form potassium tetrachloride  $K_2CCl_4$  and potassium chloride  $KCl$ . Potassium reacts with carbon tetrachloride to form potassium tetrachloride  $K_2CCl_4$  and potassium chloride  $KCl$ .

reaction is included in the commercial modification of the metal.

**Availability.** Potassium metal is available in one grade of 99+ percent purity with sodium as the major impurity. The usual product is about 50,000 lb/yr. The price of the metal varies widely with the quantity ordered. 15 lb lot cost \$4.75 per lb. 1958 and 100,000-300,000-lb lot cost \$1.00 per lb. Potassium salt is generally more expensive than the corresponding metal. It is a strong hydrate of potassium carbonate salt for about 9¢ per lb (as of 1958) compared to 2.3¢ per lb for the corresponding potassium carbonate.

**Handling.** Handling of potassium metal is much the same as that of sodium metal with two major exceptions. First the formation of the superoxide  $KO_2$  is difficult because it can react vigorously with hydrocarbons and other organic matter. Second potassium forms a explosive compound with carbon monoxide and the metal detonates in contact with boron.

Generally potassium metal and the potassium nitride ( $NK$ ) alloys are considered to be nonflammable. However, if the potassium metal is exposed to the atmosphere, it will ignite and burn. The potassium metal reacts with the atmosphere to form potassium superoxide  $KO_2$  and potassium peroxide  $K_2O_2$ . Potassium metal reacts with the atmosphere to form potassium superoxide  $KO_2$  and potassium peroxide  $K_2O_2$ .

**Sodium.** Principal compounds. Potassium chloride  $KCl$  is the most important potassium compound. It is used in the form of potassium chloride  $KCl$  and potassium chloride  $KCl$ . Potassium chloride  $KCl$  is used in the form of potassium chloride  $KCl$  and potassium chloride  $KCl$ .

Potassium hydroxide  $KOH$  is known as caustic potash. It is usually made by the electrolysis of potassium chloride  $KCl$  and water. Potassium carbonate  $K_2CO_3$  is made from potassium hydroxide and carbon dioxide. It is the main product of the Solvay process for sodium carbonate.

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maximum deviation they swing rapidly back in the direction of rotation to the forward looking position (quick phase) the process repeated over and over causes an oscillation of the eyes. When the head reaches constant velocity nystagmus disappears only to reappear when rotation ceases in the latter instance however the quick phase is in the direction opposite to the original direction of rotation.

Nystagmus may be horizontal vertical or rotatory depending upon the position of the head during angular acceleration When the head is bent forward 30 the horizontal semicircular canals are in the plane of rotation and the nystagmus is horizontal When the head is flexed 90 onto the shoulder the vertical canals are in the plane of rotation and nystagmus is vertical With the head bent forward 120 or backward 60 rotation causes rotatory nystagmus See MUSCLE MUSCLE (BIO PHYSICS) NERVOUS SYSTEM PSYCHOLOGY PHYSIOLOGICAL AND EXPERIMENTAL [HDP TCR]

## Potassium

With an atomic number of 19 and an atomic weight of 39.1 potassium K stands in the middle of the alkali metal family below sodium and above rubidium in group Ia of the periodic table of the elements. It is a lightweight soft low melting reactive metal. In 1807 Sir Humphry Davy isolated metallic potassium by electrolysis for the first time. It is very similar to sodium in its behavior in metallic form and its uses are limited as a consequence of the availability of low cost sodium in large volume.

The image shows a standard periodic table of elements. The elements are arranged in rows and columns based on their atomic structure. Each element is represented by its chemical symbol and atomic number. The table includes the following elements:

- Period 1:** H (1), He (2)
- Period 2:** Li (3), Be (4), B (5), C (6), N (7), O (8), F (9), Ne (10)
- Period 3:** Na (11), Mg (12), Al (13), Si (14), P (15), S (16), Cl (17), Ar (18)
- Period 4:** K (19), Ca (20), Sc (21), Ti (22), V (23), Cr (24), Mn (25), Fe (26), Co (27), Ni (28), Cu (29), Zn (30), Ga (31), Ge (32), As (33), Se (34), Br (35), Kr (36)
- Period 5:** Rb (37), Sr (38), Y (39), Zr (40), Nb (41), Mo (42), Tc (43), Ru (44), Rh (45), Pd (46), Ag (47), Cd (48), In (49), Sn (50), Sb (51), Te (52), I (53), Xe (54)
- Period 6:** Cs (55), Ba (56), La (57), Ce (58), Pr (59), Nd (60), Pm (61), Sm (62), Eu (63), Gd (64), Tb (65), Dy (66), Ho (67), Er (68), Tm (69), Yb (70), Lu (71), Hf (72), Ta (73), W (74), Re (75), Os (76), Ir (77), Pt (78), Au (79), Hg (80), Tl (81), Pb (82), Bi (83), Po (84), At (85), Rn (86)
- Period 7:** Fr (87), Ra (88), Ac (89), Th (90), Pa (91), U (92), Np (93), Pu (94), Am (95), Cm (96), Bk (97), Cf (98), Es (99), Fm (100), Md (101), No (102), Lr (103)

The lanthanide series (La to Lu) and actinide series (Ac to Lr) are shown below the main table.

**Uses** Potassium chloride finds its main use in fertilizer mixture. It also serves as the raw material for the manufacture of other potassium compounds.

Potassium hydroxide is used in the manufacture of liquid soaps and potassium carbonate in making soft soaps. Potassium carbonate is also an important raw material for the glass industry.

Potassium nitrate is used in matches in pyrotechnics and in similar items which require an oxidizing agent.

**Occurrence** Potassium is a very abundant element ranking seventh among all the elements in the earth's crust. 259% of which is potassium in combined form. Only oxygen, silicon, aluminum,

iron calcium and sodium are more abundant Sea water contains 380 parts per million making potassium the sixth most plentiful element in solution being exceeded only by chlorine sodium magnesium sulfur and calcium

Potassium compounds are found in the historically important deposits at Staßfurt in Germany which consist of sylvite (KCl) and carnallite (MgCl KCl). In the United States extensive potassium deposits containing sylvite and polyhalite ( $2\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot \text{K}_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) are located at Searles Lake California and Carlsbad New Mexico. In addition potassium salts are found in France Spain Poland the Soviet Union and in the Dead Sea.

**Metallurgical extraction** Commercial potassium chloride is melted in a gas fired melt pot and is fed to the exchange column (see illustration) in the commercial manufacture of potassium metal by *thermochemical means*. The molten potassium chloride flows down over steel Raschig ring in the packed column. It is met by a descending sodium vapors coming from a gas fired reboiler. An equilibrium is set up between the two giving sodium chloride and potassium metal as the products. The sodium chloride formed is continuously withdrawn at the base of the apparatus. The column operating conditions may be varied to give practically pure potassium metal as an overhead product or to vaporize sodium along with the potassium to give sodium potassium (NaK) alloys of varying compositions as products. Potassium metal of over 99.5% purity can be produced continuously.

Unlike lithium and sodium which are produced by electrolysis potassium reacts with carbon electrode and also can form an explosive carbonyl in electrolysis (or in thermochemical method using carbon reduction). Therefore the thermochemical route using the reaction between metallic sodium and potassium chloride has proven most practical and economic.

**Physical properties** The physical properties of potassium metal are summarized in the table

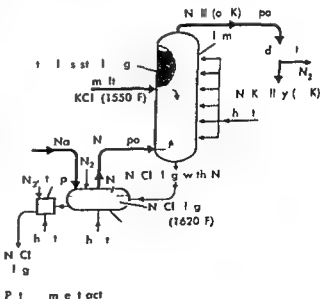




Fig. 2. Irish potato plant with good yield (USDA)

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Fig 3 l h p t t g t h U t d S t t f  
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bonate because potassium bicarbonate is too soluble in ammonium chloride solution

Potassium nitrate  $KNO_3$  is made by fractional crystallization of an aqueous solution containing sodium nitrate and potassium chloride

**Analytical methods** As in the case of sodium the high water solubility of most potassium compounds complicates the analytical determination of potassium. Qualitative detection is usually made by means of the violet potassium flame; the sodium flame which is usually present as well is masked by viewing the flame through a cobalt glass filter.

Gravimetric determination of potassium can be made using sodium triphenylboron sodium perchlorate or other reagents. Rubidium and cesium interfere in most of the gravimetric methods when they are present. See ALKALI METALS [M 51]

**Bibliography** Am Chem Soc *Handling and Uses of the Alkali Metals* Advances in Chem Ser vol 19 1957 C B Jackson *Liquid Metals Handbook Sodium NaK Supplement* 3d ed 1955 R N Lyon (ed) *Liquid Metals Handbook* 2d ed Navetos P 733 (rev) 1954

## Potato Irish

The white potato *Solanum tuberosum* of the plant order Tubiflorales grown in cool climates. The Irish potato is the world's leading vegetable crop with an annual production of more than 8 000 000 000 bu and ranks with wheat and rice among the world's most important foods.

Spaniards invading South America found the white potato under cultivation high in the Andes Mountains of Peru and Bolivia; the region believed to be its center of origin and took it back to Spain in 1538. It was introduced into Ireland about 1586. History indicates that the potato was brought to Virginia from the West Indies about 1621. It was transported from Ireland by Scotch Irish immigrants to Londonderry (now called Derry) New Hampshire in 1719 and was given the name Irish potato. See TUBIFLORES.

**Characteristics** This herbaceous annual has round or angular aerial green or pigmented stems which have axillary branches. The stems vary from  $\frac{1}{4}$  to  $1\frac{1}{4}$  in in diameter and may grow erect to a height of 3-4 ft or they may be procumbent (creeping).

The leaves which are pinnately compound consist of a large terminal leaflet subtended by three or four pairs of large petiolated leaflets borne laterally on a rachis; the leaflets are arranged spirally on the stem.

Fibrous roots arise from the underground stem in groups of three just above the nodes. The roots grow about 24 in laterally and about 18 in deep under cultivation in humid region but the depth may reach 3 ft or more under drier conditions.

The flowers occur in cymose inflorescence. Each flower has a white pinkish or purplish five-lobed corolla and the anthers of the five stamens borne

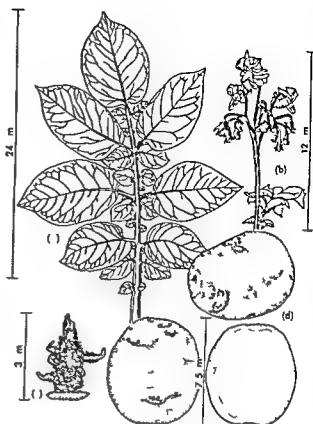


Fig 1 Irish potato (Katahdin variety) (a) Pinnately compound leaf (b) Flowers (c) New plant developing from a tuber section (d) Seed piece (e) Tubers showing eye containing buds (Dutch Potato Allis H Vee ma a d Zo e Wage ge N the la ds)

on the corolla tube are orange lemon or sometimes greenish yellow (Fig 1).

Under cool conditions arietic with fertile pollen may develop fruit balls which are green berry-like structures  $\frac{1}{4}$ - $1\frac{1}{4}$  in in diameter and contain numerous kidney-shaped seed (Fig 2). The berries are sometimes taken for young tomatoes. Seed are used experimentally in the production of new varieties. Desirable arietic however are propagated vegetatively by means of tuber sections which possess buds. The berries are often referred to as seed pieces.

Tubers are formed on the tips of or are edible on underground lateral stems or rhizomes commonly called stolons. The stolon is a thickened underground stem having nodes and internodes; the position of the nodes is indicated by eyes which are leaf axillary and containing lateral branches with axillary buds and very short internodes. Several sprouts may develop from one eye. Depending on the arietic tuber varies in shape from round to oblong or oval in outline. It is in depth of eye and in kind of color from light yellow to brown to red. Varieties also differ in time of maturity in resistance to disease and in adaptation to different growing conditions and in yield and market quality. It is important in judging cooking and processing characteristics depending on growing conditions and market quality.



Fig 1 Sweet potato (a) P. R. y m v ty  
b. g. J. sey typ (USDA)

the baby back down at a mile a s (glucose and fructose) and not mixed at product of time. This is a most satisfactory type of baby back that the dry (Je) type. On rock the ground the dry type means more.

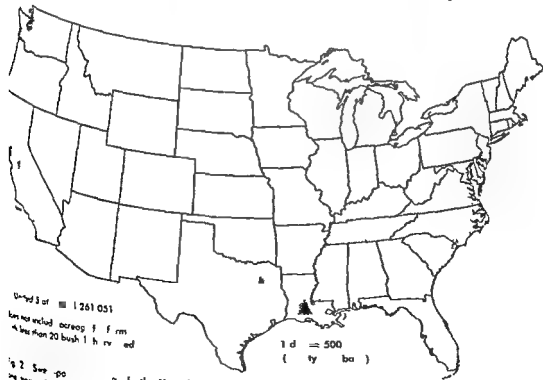
The most productive in the northern hemisphere is the breeding of the most productive type is the white ground. The Jersey sweet potato is grown in the long eastern half of Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, New Jersey and also in Iowa and (Fig 2).

The total consumption of white potatoes in the United States, like that of white potatoes, is a

ther high carbohydrate foods are now somewhat lower than former years. Nevertheless the value of the sweet potato industry in Louisiana is increasing at the rate of about \$500,000 of market value each year. With the development of new varieties the northern limits of sweet potato production have been extended to Canada and no other United States. This has come about by breeding early and better varieties. In Michigan, number of baby food manufacturers are growing this crop for processing.

**Breeding** The principal objectives in sweet potato breeding are higher nutritional values including higher vitamin and mineral contents in increased yield, greater disease resistance and wider adaptation. Louisiana, Oklahoma, Georgia, North and South Carolina and more recently California have initiated breeding programs. The United States Department of Agriculture and several states are joining in the state and national seedling and seedling industry. For example, in the year 1941, Louisiana about 20,000 seedlings are grown and sold. Men from all parts of the world are being trained in breeding, production and handling the crop. The better varieties are being produced in all the states with the top of the production and most of the temperate zone.

**Processing** In the United States the sweet potato is consumed extensively in Louisiana and along the Eastern Shore and its popularity is increasing every year. The frozen product has appeared on the market. The white potato is another



United States 1941  
has not included acreage of farms  
less than 20 bushels per acre

1 d = 500  
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Fig 2 Sweet potato  
the year Bureau of the U.S. Dept. of Agriculture  
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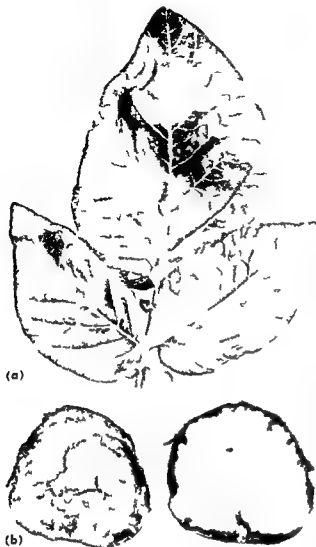


Fig 4 Late blight of Irish potato *Phytophthora infestans* (a) Foliage infection (b) Tuber infection (USDA)

feed See VEGETABLE GROWING; see also POTATO SWEET [A H]

**Irish potato diseases** The potato is subject to numerous destructive diseases caused by fungi, bacteria, viruses, and nematodes. Potatoes may also be seriously injured by unfavorable growing or storage conditions.

**Fungal diseases** The most destructive single disease is late blight caused by the fungus *Phytophthora infestans*, which was introduced into Europe after the potato had become established as a major food crop (Fig 4). A succession of epidemics starting about 1845 caused tremendous damage, especially in Ireland, where loss of the potato crop resulted in the starvation of 1,000,000 people and the emigration of 1,500,000 others. Late blight still causes important losses of potatoes in most of the important potato-growing areas and makes control programs necessary.

Less important fungal diseases of potato foliage are early blight and certain rusts and powdery mildew. Some fungi, especially *Rhizoctonia*, *Sclerotinia*, and *Fusarium*, attack the stem

primarily causing rots, cankers, or wilts. Tubers in the field are subject to attack by many fungi, which cause such diseases as black wart, powdery scab, common scab, silver scurf, leak, rhizoctonia, disease, pink rot, and fusarium tuber rot.

**Bacterial diseases** Similar bacteria cause black leg of the stem (*Erwinia atroseptica*) and bacterial soft rot of the tuber (*Erwinia carotovora*). The latter is extremely destructive in storage. Other destructive bacterial diseases are the ring and brown rots, both of which cause wilt or death of growing plants and rot or deterioration of tubers.

**Virus diseases** As a group, viruses are probably the most important and insidious pathogens of the potato. Mild mosaic, rugose mosaic, leaf roll, latent mosaic, spindle tuber, calico, yellow dwarf, witches' broom, haywire, and purple top wilt are descriptive names of important viruses. Although most viruses do not kill the plant outright, they reduce the yield and quality of the tuber. Because most viruses are carried inside the tubers, the planting of certified disease-free tuber sections is the principal means of control.

**Nematode diseases** Nematodes (mistleworms) cause root knot and golden nematode tuber rot. Nematode and meadow nematode diseases. Nematodes often persist in the soil for many years and once established they are difficult to control.

**Mechanical injury** There are also many kinds of nonparasitic diseases such as blackheart, hollow heart, stem end necrosis, and sprain. These injuries are caused by excessive heat or cold in the field or in storage, by nutritional disorders, by an excess or lack of water, and by poor ventilation in storage. See NEMATODA; PLANT DISEASE; PLANT VIRUS [H D T]

## Potato sweet

The fleshy root of the plant *Ipomoea batatas*. The sweet potato was mentioned as being grown in Virginia as early as 1648. In 1930 the election of outstanding strains of the Porto Rico variety, which was introduced into Florida in 1908, was begun in Louisiana, and the belt train Unit I Porto Rico was released in 1934. In 1937 new techniques were developed for inducing the sweet potato to bloom and to seed. This stimulated a surge of research on breeding for higher yield, greater nutritional value, better shape, storage ability, market and canning quality, greater disease resistance, and new food products and industrial uses for the sweet potato throughout the southern states and from New Jersey to California. In 1957 the crop in the United States was valued at \$71,427,000. In Louisiana the leading commercial state for production of both the canned and fresh product, the annual value of the crop varies from \$15,000,000 to \$20,000,000 depending on seasonal conditions and demand.

**Types** There are two principal types of sweet potato: the kind erroneously called yam and the Jersey type (Fig 1). The chief difference between the two is that in cooking or baking the yam is much



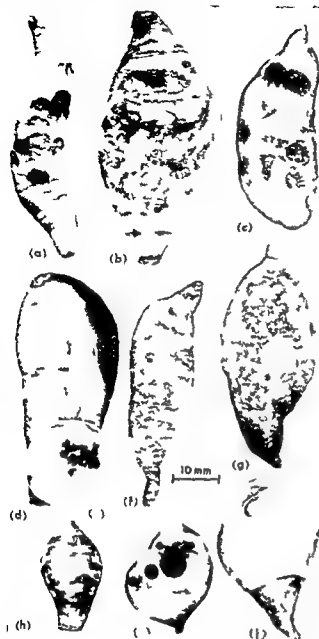


Fig 3. Symptoms of sweet potato diseases: (a) Black rot, (b) Soft rot, (c) Soil rot, (d) Internal cork, (e) Section through internal cork affected root, (f) Root knot, (g) Java black rot, (h) Scab, (i) Circular spot, (j) Charcoal rot, (k) Agave-like leaf, (l) Epiphytic stat.

product that is similar to the Irish potato chip but higher in vitamins and carbohydrates. The most recent development is the making of sweet potato flakes similar to corn flakes which can be used as cereal in pie filling in doughnut and in caserole form. In addition many live stock growers use fresh and dehydrated sweet potatoes for feeding swine, poultry and dairy cattle. The sweet potato stimulates milk production and increases the vitamin A content of the milk.

**True yam.** The true yam *Dioscorea* includes both edible and medicinal varieties. The latter are grown primarily for their cortex. One variety, a teroid, A large number of cortex yams are grown in the United States, particularly in Louisiana. See BREFFING (PLANT) CAROTENOID STEROID VEGETABLE GROWING VITAMIN A. See also POTATO. [JCM]

**Diseases.** Sweet potato diseases caused by fungi, nematodes and viruses affect both the plants growing in the field and the edible root in storage and transit. Diseases incited by the different fungi are black rot, stem rot, soft rot, oil rot, curf, circular spot, Java black rot, charcoal rot, foot rot, root rot, mottle, necrosis, leaf blight, leaf spot, white rust and true rust. The primary nematode disease is root knot. Viruses are important in sweet potato production mainly since 1940 are mosaic, feathery mottle, internal cork, mottle leaf, dwarf and others till unidentified.

Disease control of any great importance in successful production and distribution of sweet potatoes is difficult because sweet potatoes are propagated vegetatively. Essential control practices are selection of disease free root for propagation, chemical treatment of selected roots to destroy unseen traces of fungus, and crop rotation to reduce soil infestation. Soil treatments with fungicides or nematocides sometimes are necessary to rid infested soils of disease producing organisms. Since 1940 resistant varieties obtained through breeding and selection have aided in control of stem rot and to some extent oil rot, black rot and root knot. World wide search for disease resistant strains among the numerous sweet potato types available combined with breeding program should result in development of more resistant varieties. See NEW ATODA PLANT DISEASE PLANT VIRUS see also FUNGICIDE AND FUNGICIDE [WJM]

## Potential electric

At a given point in an electric field the electric potential is the potential difference between that point and a place that is arbitrarily said to be at zero potential (see POTENTIAL DIFFERENCE). Frequently it is convenient to consider that the earth is at zero potential and this choice is made when convenience is served as it usually is in a circuit analysis. In other cases particularly in electrostatic field the problem is simplified if the potential is taken to be zero at a place infinitely far removed from the charge which produces the electric field. Using the latter choice the potential  $V$  at a point  $P$  is the work per unit charge required to move a positive test charge from infinity to  $P$  (a test charge is one whose magnitude is small enough so that its presence does not distort the field being studied). Since electric field intensity  $E$  is force per unit charge it follows that  $V$  at point  $P$  is given by the line integral

$$V = \int_{(\infty)}^{(P)} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \int_{(\infty)}^{(P)} E \cos \theta \, ds \quad (1)$$

where  $ds$  is a vector element of path length directed along the chosen path from  $\infty$  toward  $P$  and  $\theta$  is the angle between the vector  $\mathbf{E}$  and  $ds$ . See ELECTRIC FIELD.

Potential is a scalar point quantity since it has a magnitude only at every point in an electric field. It is a potential function  $V$  for a particular problem is a scalar equation which expresses  $V$  as a



the force at  $P$  are

$$-\frac{1}{r^2} \cos \alpha - \frac{1}{r^2} \cos \beta - \frac{1}{r^2} \cos \gamma$$

where  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  are the angles that the line  $OP$  makes with the coordinate axes. These may be written also as

$$-\frac{x}{r^3} \mathbf{i} - \frac{y}{r^3} \mathbf{j} - \frac{z}{r^3} \mathbf{k}$$

As the body  $M_2$  moves throughout space a vector field or force field is generated. This is usually designated the Newtonian or gravitational field. A simple calculation shows that the function  $\phi = 1/r$  has as its gradient the gravitational field. In other words by means of a single function the gravitational forces due to a unit mass at a single point are completely described. This function is called the unit gravitational potential or simply the potential.

In the idealized situation just described the masses  $M_1$  and  $M$  occupy single points in space. Let  $M_1$  occupy a domain  $D$  in space and let  $\rho(\xi, \eta, \zeta)$  be the density of  $M_1$  at each point  $(\xi, \eta, \zeta)$  of  $D$ . Once again  $M_2$  is a unit mass located at a point  $P(x, y, z)$  not in  $D$ . The mass  $M$  may be decomposed into elementary pieces and the gravitational potential at  $P$  due to  $M$  will be the sum of the potentials of the individual parts. By the usual limiting process of calculus the potential  $\phi$  is given by

$$\phi(x, y, z) = \iiint_D \frac{\rho(\xi, \eta, \zeta) d\xi d\eta d\zeta}{[(x - \xi)^2 + (y - \eta)^2 + (z - \zeta)^2]^{3/2}} \quad (1)$$

The gradient of  $\phi(x, y, z)$  yields the gravitational force field due to the mass  $M$  at each point of space exterior to  $D$ . Although the integrand in (1) becomes singular for points  $P(x, y, z)$  within  $D$  the integral itself nevertheless has a finite value. Thus it is possible to consider the potential of solid objects throughout the entire space.

A simple calculation shows that the function  $\phi = 1/r$  satisfies the Laplace equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z^2} = 0$$

at all points except  $r = 0$ . Similarly the integral (1) satisfies the same equation at all points not in  $D$ . Thus the study of gravitational fields is intimately connected with the study of a particular partial differential equation—the Laplace equation. This equation arises in many branches of mathematical physics and hence an immediate analogy is drawn between the Newtonian potential and potentials which arise in the study of electric fields, magnetism and fluid flow.

**Electricity** The force field due to the attraction and repulsion of electric charges admits of an analogy similar to that for the gravitational potential. The main distinction between Coulomb's law and Newton's law lies in the fact that similarly charged

electric particles repel each other. The potential function for two particles each of unit charge is either  $1/r$  or  $-1/r$  according as they are of opposite or of like charge. If one considers the field due to a number of charges, some positive and some negative, care must be taken in regard to the sign in computing the electric potential.

**Magnetism** The field of force due to a magnet is somewhat more complicated than the field due to masses or electric particles. Under ordinary considerations of a magnet it is essential that there be both a north and a south pole. There is no parallel to a point unit mass or a positive electric charge in one unit. For this purpose it is necessary to introduce the idealized concept of a magnetic particle. Imagine one pole of a magnet located at a single point  $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  with an attracting strength  $m$  and the other end of the magnet at the point  $P_1(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  with attracting strength  $-m$ . The potential function at a point  $P(x, y, z)$  in space due to this magnet is given by the function

$$\phi = \phi(x, y, z) = m/r_0 - m/r_1$$

where

$$r_0^2 = (x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2 + (z - z_0)^2 \\ r_1^2 = (x - x_1)^2 + (y - y_1)^2 + (z - z_1)^2$$

In other words idealized magnets also follow Newton's or Coulomb's laws with strength of poles replacing masses and charged particles. One can denote by  $d$  the length of the segment  $P_0P_1$ . Let the point  $P_1$  approach  $P_0$  along the line segment  $P_0P_1$  and let  $m$  approach infinity in such a way that  $m \cdot d$  is always equal to a constant  $\mu$ . The function  $\phi$  will approach a limit which is a potential function. The quantity  $\mu$  is called the moment of the magnetic particle at  $P_0$ . It is clear that  $\phi$  also depends on the direction along which  $P_1$  approaches  $P_0$  and this direction is called the axis of the particle. It is not difficult to see that the potential of a magnetic particle is the moment times the directional derivative of the function  $1/r$  in the direction of its axis. The potentials due to curved surfaces and solids made up of magnetic particles are obtained by integration as in the case of gravitational potentials.

**Heat conduction** Heat conduction in a solid is governed by the partial differential equation

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z^2}$$

In the steady state flow of heat  $\partial \phi / \partial t = 0$  and the solution independent of time satisfies the Laplace equation. Thus the problem of determining the steady state flow of heat in a body is equivalent to the problem of finding a potential function under appropriate boundary conditions.

**Fluid flow** Suppose a fluid flows through a region  $R$  in space. Let  $u(x, y, z, t)$ ,  $v(x, y, z, t)$ ,  $w(x, y, z, t)$  be the components of the velocity vector at the point  $P(x, y, z)$  at time  $t$ . If the flow is stationary the functions  $u, v, w$  do not depend on  $t$ . If in addition the fluid is incompressible and the flow is irro-

the al that i f re of or tner th re will ext t a  
potential f nct on  $\phi$  s ch that its gradient is the  
veloc field hich d bes the flow

Other concepts Many problems of pote tial the  
er become simpler if a restriction t two dim n  
made Supp wire of con ta t linear  
f stv P i stu ted along the  $z = 0$  can as  
sume th t n is infinitely long exte d g f m  
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f i z 0 i s calculated t be  $2\rho/r$  where  $r =$   
 $+y^2$  a d i d rected along th line  $OP$  The  
pote t i h i h y lds th s force field is  $\phi(xy) =$   
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equation i r r  $\neq 0$  while the fu ct on  $1/\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$   
b r s t

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tential fu t then general  $\phi(xy, z) = C$   
tme C t e n t nt defines a s rf in sp ce  
f as h i geom try H i kn wn that i f  
f i z a 0 i any u f i e the vect r

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial z}$$

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m p ly

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}$$

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d m i n e f f d f a d h e t n d t n  
la r d e r t e x h b i t h e l e r e l a t i o n h p b t w e e  
m i f the Lapl c q a t o ( l l d h a m n c  
f r m ) a d p o t e t a l a s k t h w i l l b e g i  
f h o i t t e r y h a m n c f u n t i o n m a y b e  
p r o v e d a a m f p o t e n t i a l D e n t e b y  $\Delta$   
e r t i e

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}$$

I R n a t g n with mooth b o n d r y S a d n  
b n th u t n r m a l t o S the f o l l w n g i d e n  
t a e q u e n f C e n the m

$$\iint_S (\Delta - \Delta u) d\tau = \iint_S \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) dS \quad (2)$$

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b n a f i e d p n t f R and the d  
z f o m P ( y, z ) t P Th l e c t r 1 /  
t a b t h f i c i n Th i t r o d a r t i  
t a m r l t (2) b t a b h a b h a b

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sphere about P i d l e t e d f o m R a n d t o the  
boundary S is added the surface of th s sphere  
After o m e r e d c t n the c u l t i n g f r m u l a s

$$(x_0, y_0, z_0) = -\frac{1}{4\pi} \iint_S \frac{\Delta u}{r} d\tau + \frac{1}{4\pi} \iint_S \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} \frac{1}{r} dS - \frac{1}{4\pi} \iint_S u \frac{\partial}{\partial n} \left( \frac{1}{r} \right) dS$$

If now u is harm c the first i t e a l o the right  
an ishe d the rel t i o n

$$u(x_0, y_0, z_0) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \iint_S \frac{\partial}{\partial n} \frac{1}{r} dS - \frac{1}{4\pi} \iint_S u \frac{\partial}{\partial n} \left( \frac{1}{r} \right) dS$$

follow The first int g r a l r e p r e n t the Newt o n  
n s p t e n t i a l d e t o r f c e S f d e t y  $\partial u / \partial$   
while th e c o n d t e g r a l s the p t i a l f a  
face S f m a g n e t i s t i l w i t h m g n e t i c m o m e t  
u ( y, x ) S C A L C U L U S O F V E C T O R S D I F F E R E N T I A L  
E Q U A T I O N L A P L A C E S D I F F E R E N T I A L E Q U A T I O N  
O P E R A T O R T H E O R Y P O T E N T I A L S ( P H Y S I C S )

[M H P]

B i b l g a p h y O D k l l o g g F o r d a t i o n s o f P  
t e t i l T h e o r y 1929 H P o i n c a r T h o t e d P  
t e n t e l N e u t e 1899

## Potentials (physics)

Potential n p h y a e o f t w h d (1) m e a s  
u r e f m g o f a q n t i t y a l a b l e f o r p s i b l e  
s e a n d (2) f u t i n s w h o e t i h a n g a e  
the p r m r y q n t i t y o f a p h y c i l t h o r y V a w  
s the f e g o i n g d f u n t i t s a r e l y b o d  
e n o g h t o l u d e a l l r r e t u a g f the w d p o t  
t t l l t h e l d e t n d m t c m m n a p p l a  
t i o n s h t h s e (1) d (2) a p p l y d i s e n s  
(2) the p t i a l s n g l f t i f r o m w h c h a  
c t o r h a s f c e a e l c i t y i s d e r i d I n  
the e w a d h d u a g e A p o t e n t i a l f B  
u s a m m b n a t i o f t h p a r t i l d a t i e o f A  
q u a l s B e p t m o f p h y a l n t p r e t a t o n  
I n m a n y e p e t (1) l e a d t o r i s e p l c d  
b y n r v t n p r c i p l e a r t m g the e i t e  
e f q u t y w h m a i a c h a n g d T h e  
c o n e r v e d q a n t i t y n o m e i d e f i n d i  
t e r m f t h p o t e n t i a l a n d o m e c s e i t  
S o m e t i m e s the e t f a p t e n t l e d s l t  
m e p r c i p l e o f c m y w h e b y m q a t t y  
d f i n e d b y the a d o f t h p t i t l i l e d  
g t h p r t i l r p h y c i l t h e o r y t h n t w u l d  
b e f i t a t h y d d t h o l d

I t c n o t j t l y b e d t h t t h w d p t i a l  
t d f n y p h y l e c e p t R a t h r a s n w  
u e d t e f l e l y t h the m a t h e m t c a l s m p l  
f i c a t f f m u l a s t h t m e t m e m l i s w h n  
s m e f t h d f f e e t l q u a n t i f a t h e r y a r  
r e p l d b the g e n a l o l t n t r m f a  
b t r y f t n T h e f e c t n s the c l l e d  
p t i n l

A b e c e f u n f y g c n c e p t m a k e a n n  
m e r t o f t y p i l c s t h n l y b l w a y t o  
d t h e b e h a v e



**Potentials in mass point mechanics** A body of constant mass  $M$  near the earth's surface obeys the law of conservation of energy

$$\text{Total energy} = T + U = \text{const} \quad (1)$$

Here  $T$  is the kinetic energy arising only from the motion of the body  $T = \frac{1}{2} Mv^2$  where  $v$  is the speed. The energy  $U$  is a potential energy arising only from the location of the body  $U = Mgz$  where  $z$  is the height above some arbitrary level and  $g$  is the constant acceleration of gravity. Loss of some potential energy results in gain of an equal amount of kinetic energy and vice versa. The force  $F$  which acts on the body is given by  $F = -\text{grad } U = -\partial U / \partial r$  where  $r$  is the position vector. Both aspect (1) and aspect (2) of the definition of potential are illustrated here.

More generally consider a system of  $n$  mass points with masses  $M_k$  and position vectors  $r_k$ . A function  $U(r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n)$  is said to be a potential energy of the system if the force acting upon the  $k$ th mass point is given by

$$F_k = -\text{grad}_k U = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial r_k} \quad (2)$$

Therefore the equations of motion are

$$M_k r_k = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial r_k} \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, n \quad (3)$$

Integration of Eqs (3) again yields the theorem of conservation of total energy in the form of Eq (1) where

$$T = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^n M_k v_k^2$$

This result illustrates not only aspects (1) and (2) but also the simplicity of specifying the motion of the system by means of the single function  $U$  instead of the  $n$  vectors  $F_k$ . See ENERGY.

One principle which may serve as the basis of statics states that the equilibrium position of a conservative system is such that its potential energy assumes the least value possible. There are several generalizations of this idea to dynamics. For example, let the conservative system considered be described by  $3n$  generalized coordinates  $q_k$ . The kinetic potential  $L(q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n, \dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2, \dots, \dot{q}_n)$  is defined by  $L = T - U$ . The motion of the system is such as to give the total kinetic potential its least possible value. A mathematical expression for this requirement is

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_k} - \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_k} = 0 \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, 3n \quad (4)$$

See LAGRANGE'S EQUATIONS.

**Gravitational potentials** One expression for the classical law of universal gravitation is that there exists a potential energy  $U(P)$  of the form

$$U(P) = -G \int \frac{dm}{r(dm, P)} \quad (5)$$

where  $r(dm, P)$  is the distance from the element  $dm$  to the point  $P$ . Here  $G$  is the constant of universal gravitation. The integration is carried out over all space, both discrete and continuous masses may be included. When all masses are discrete the theory becomes a special case of that expressed by Eqs (3). When masses are smoothly distributed in space so that  $dm = \rho dv$  where  $\rho$  is density and  $dv$  is an element of volume, it is shown from Eq (5) that

$$\nabla^2 U = \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial z^2} = 4\pi G \rho$$

In empty space

$$\nabla^2 U = 0$$

The force acting on a unit mass present in  $b$  influencing the gravitational field is  $-\text{grad } U$ . Extensive mathematical developments based on Eqs (6) and (7) constitute potential theory. GRAVITATION.

In general relativity the metric tensor of time is supposed to be determined by the distribution of energy and momentum. Its ten components are called gravitational potentials. The equations do not conform to the definition directly, rather their name arises from the fact that possible to define from them mathematical quantity which reduces in the classical approximation to the classical potential  $U$  which satisfies Eq (6). See RELATIVITY.

**Fluid potentials** If the motion of a fluid or deformable substance is such that there exists a function  $\phi$  giving the velocity  $v$  as follows

$$v = -\text{grad } \phi$$

then  $\phi$  is said to be a velocity potential. A particular kind of motion called irrotational motion is characterized by Eq (8). In such a motion the portions of the material are not spinning, they may circulate. If the substance is incompressible then  $\nabla \cdot v = 0$  compare Equation (7) this case the motion has less kinetic energy than any other one corresponding to the same charge of matter through a fixed bounding surface. See LAPLACE'S IRROTATIONAL MOTION.

More generally if the acceleration  $a$  satisfies a relation such as Eq (8)  $a = -\text{grad } \chi$  then  $\chi$  is called an acceleration potential. Again a particular kind of motion is characterized, this time circulation of velocity around any closed ring of particles remains unaltered. This is a conservation principle.

Virtually all of the science of hydrodynamics and aerodynamics concern motions of the fluid. The acceleration potential may generalize the potential energy since in some conditions  $\chi = \chi + \int dp/\rho$  where  $\chi$  is a potential energy and  $\chi$  is the pressure. In a steady motion along a streamline

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More generally, if the acceleration  $a$  satisfies a relation such as Eq. (8),  $a = -\text{grad } I$ , then  $I$  is called an acceleration potential. Again a special kind of motion is characterized, this time the circulation of velocity around any closed ring of particle remains unaltered. This is a conservation principle.

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$$\frac{1}{2} v^2 + \Phi = \text{const} \quad (9)$$



$$\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 W}{\partial t^2} = \nabla^2 W \quad (20)$$

■ being the speed at which disturbances such as waves of sound or light travel (see WAVE EQUATION WAVE MOTION) Then

$$W(P, t) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \oint_S \left[ \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial W^*}{\partial n} - \left( W^* + \frac{r}{c} \frac{\partial W}{\partial t} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial n} \left( \frac{1}{r} \right) \right] dA \quad (21)$$

where  $S$  is a closed surface  $r$  is the distance from the point  $P$  to  $dA$  and the asterisk indicates that the time  $t$  is to be replaced by the earlier time  $t - r/c$ . This formula which shows precisely how signals traveling at the speed  $c$  propagate to the point  $P$  conditions formerly holding upon the surrounding surface  $S$  is said to represent the wave function  $W$  in terms of retarded potentials. See CALCULUS OF TENSORS CALCULUS OF VECTORS POTENTIALS (MATHEMATICS)

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## Potentiometer (variable resistor)

A variable resistance device with three terminals used in electric circuits. As shown schematically in Fig 1 the three terminals are the two ends of a resistor (or series combination of resistor) and a movable connection which allows adjustment of the resistance between this movable connection and either end connection. The movable connection often consists of a sliding contact which moves along the actual resistor element. The size or rating of a potentiometer is specified by giving its total resistance in ohms and the permissible loss in watt. See RESISTOR. By using only the movable and one fixed connection a potentiometer may be used as a rheostat.

The term potentiometer is also applied to a precision instrument used to measure or compare electrical voltages for a discussion of this device which depends on the same type of resistor arrangement see POTENTIOMETER (VOLTAGE MEASUREMENT)

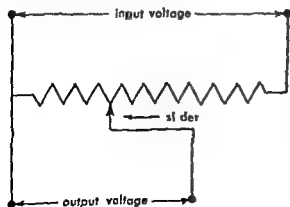


Fig 1 Potentiometer schematic

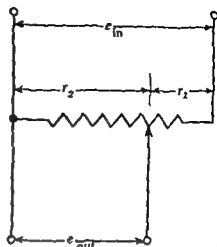


Fig 2 Voltage divider

range ment see POTENTIOMETER (VOLTAGE MEASUREMENT)

**Use** A potentiometer is used to adjust and control the electric potential difference (voltage) applied to some device or part of a circuit. The output voltage may be varied from zero to the value of the input voltage. Examples of its use are as a field current control on an electric generator and as a volume control on a radio. Since the resistance between the input terminals is fixed (assuming the load device takes little current), potentiometers with precision resistors are used as range selectors on vacuum tube voltmeters and other precision electronic measuring equipment. Other uses are to divide a voltage into two parts to compare two voltages and to divide the total resistance between two parts of a circuit. The ratio between output and input voltage as shown in Fig 2 is

$$\frac{e_{out}}{e_{in}} = \frac{r_2}{r_1 + r_2}$$

**Construction** A potentiometer may be linear or nonlinear. In the linear case the resistance is uniform and the voltage distribution along the resistor is the same for any fixed fraction of its total length. Therefore the output voltage (Fig 1) is proportional to the slider position. In a nonlinear potentiometer the resistance per unit length varies and the output voltage arises as a function (such as the logarithm, the square or the sine) of the slider position. Nonlinear potentiometers are often called tapered potentiometers. In some cases the current-carrying capacity of various parts of the potentiometer may be different.

A slide wire potentiometer employs a movable sliding connection on a length of resistor wire.

A wire wound potentiometer is similar to a slide wire one except that the resistor wire is wound on a form and contact is made by a slider which moves along an edge from turn to turn. The form may be straight or bent into a part of a circle in which case the slider is mounted on an arm which is rotated by a knob. The form may be made of a



$$\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 W}{\partial t^2} = \nabla^2 W \quad (20)$$

■ being the speed at which disturbances such as waves of sound or light travel (see WAVE EQUATION WAVE MOTION) Then

$$W(P, t) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \oint_S \left[ \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial W}{\partial n} - \left( W + \frac{r}{c} \frac{\partial W}{\partial t^*} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial n} \left( \frac{1}{r} \right) \right] dA \quad (21)$$

where  $S$  ■ a closed surface  $r$  is the distance from the point  $P$  to  $dA$  and the asterisk indicates that the time  $t$  is to be replaced by the earlier time  $t - r/c$ . This formula which shows precisely how signals traveling at the speed  $c$  propagate to the point  $P$  conditions formerly holding upon the surrounding surface  $S$  is said to represent the wave function  $W$  in terms of retarded potentials. See CALCULUS OF TENSORS CALCULUS OF VECTORS POTENTIALS (MATHEMATICS)

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### Potentiometer (variable resistor)

A variable resistance device with three terminals used in electric circuits. As shown schematically in Fig 1 the three terminals are the two ends of a resistor (or series combination of resistors) and a movable connection which allows adjustment of the resistance between this movable connection and either end connection. The movable connection often consists of a sliding contact which moves along the actual resistor element. The size or rating of a potentiometer is specified by giving its total resistance in ohms and the permissible losses in watts. See RESISTOR. By using only the movable and one fixed connection a potentiometer may be used as a rheostat. See RHFOSTAT.

The term potentiometer is also applied to a precision instrument used to measure or compare electrical voltages for a discussion of this device which depends on the same type of resistor as

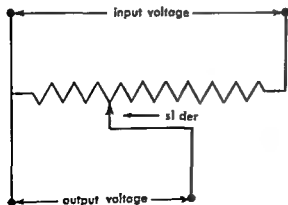


Fig 1 Potentiometer schematic

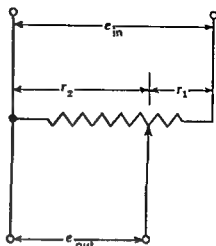


Fig 2 Voltage divider

range ment see POTENTIOMETER (VOLTAGE MEASUREMENT)

**Use** A potentiometer is used to adjust and control the electric potential difference (voltage) applied to some device or part of a circuit. The output voltage may be varied from zero to the value of the input voltage. Examples of its use are as a field current control on an electric generator and as a volume control on a radio. Since the resistance between the input terminals is fixed (assuming the load device takes little current), potentiometers with precision resistors are used as range selector switches on vacuum tube voltmeters and other precision electronic measuring equipment. Other uses are to divide a voltage into two parts to compare two voltages and to divide the total resistance between two parts of a circuit. The ratio between output and input voltage as shown in Fig 2 is

$$\frac{e}{e} = \frac{r_2}{r_1 + r_2}$$

**Construction** A potentiometer may be linear or nonlinear. In the linear case the resistor is uniform and the resistance distribution along the resistor is the same for any fixed fraction of its total length. Therefore the output voltage (Fig 1) is proportional to the slider position. In a nonlinear potentiometer the resistance per unit length varies and the output voltage arises as some function (such as the logarithm, the square or the sine) of the slider position. Nonlinear potentiometers are often called tapered potentiometers. In some cases the current-carrying capacity of various parts of the potentiometer may be different.

A slide-wire potentiometer employs a movable sliding connection on a length of resistance wire.

A wire-wound potentiometer is similar to a slide-wire one except that the resistance wire is wound on a form and contact is made by a slider which moves along an edge from turn to turn. The form may be straight or bent into a part of a circle in which case the slider is mounted on an arm which is rotated by a knob. The form may be made of a





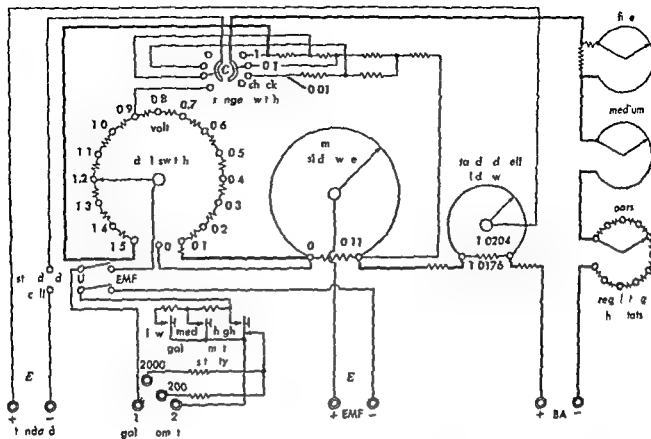


Fig 2 Complete dc potentiometer circuit (Leeds and Northrup C)

to 150 amp with special multipliers. Maximum errors of 0.05% self-contained plus 0.04% for multiplier if used are obtained.

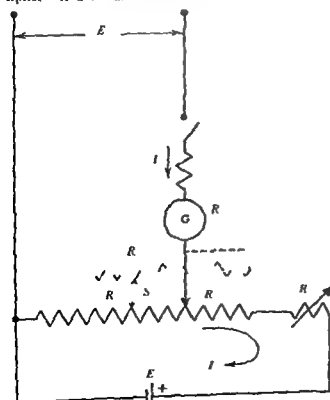


Fig 3 Elementary bridge circuit for potentiometer (From I. K. and Applied Electrical Measurements, Wiley 1956)

**Constant resistance dc potentiometer** This instrument is especially adapted to the measurement of very low potentials. As illustrated in Fig 4 the unknown potential  $E_x$  is applied to the known constant resistance  $R$  and the current  $I$  is adjusted for null reading of the galvanometer. In series with  $R$  is another constant and known resistance  $R_2$ . The potential  $E_x$  across this resistance is measured by any null type potentiometer. Then

$$E_x = E_R R_2 / R \quad (1)$$

Thus the range of the null type potentiometer may be extended downward many fold by making  $R$  large and  $R_2$  small. Reliable measurement in the microvolt range is practically if care is taken to avoid parasitic emf in  $R$ . The null potentiometer may be replaced by a dc voltmeter if measurement accuracy is thereby diminished.

**Drysdale ac polar potentiometer** This is shown in principle in Fig 5. An ordinary lid wire is supplied with current by a phase-shifting transformer. The amount of current is measured by an ammeter which must be an accurate ac to dc transfer instrument. The potentiometer current and voltage drop along the lid wire are brought into phase with the unknown voltage by adjustment of the transformer ratio. The unknown voltage is then measured by observation of the lid wire using for a null indication of the alternating galvanometer. The potentiometer is calibrated on direct current by use of a dc potentiometer. The equivalent value of ac as measured by ammeter  $R$  is maintained for

of the egg the season of the year and the diet and of the breeding stock and the length of time and environment to which the birds are subjected. The eggs were held before being placed in the hatch.

Fertility of eggs generally will exceed 90% but may be seriously affected if the male birds are sick or if the eggs have been chilled or suffer from frost or from other causes or are generally infested with bacteria.

The season of the year affects hatchability of eggs. In general, hatchability is higher in the fall than in the spring. This is due to the fact that the eggs are laid during the fall when the weather is more favorable for the development of the embryo.

Age of breeding stock is a factor in the result. Both the fertility of the egg and the actual hatching of the fertile egg decrease with advancing age of the stock.

Temperature under which eggs are held is an important factor. Eggs should be kept at a temperature of 55-60°F. If the temperature is too high, the embryo may be killed. If it is too low, the development will be retarded. The humidity of the air is also important. It should be maintained at about 65-70%.

The diet of the breeders has a material effect on the quality of the eggs. The requirements for the diet of the breeders are similar to those for the laying flocks. They should be fed a balanced ration of grains, protein, and minerals. The water should be clean and fresh.

Baby chick industry. Following the hatch, the chicks are raised in brooders. The brooder should be clean and dry. The chicks should be fed a special brooder ration. The water should be available at all times. The brooder should be protected from drafts and predators.

imply place their order and receive the chicks when they want them. This development has made it possible for breeding operations to be more centralized with consequent improvement in the grade of chicks produced. In addition, it has resulted in the growth of large farms requiring thousands of chicks at one time. This impossibility when the farmer had to depend on his own breeding flock to secure his supply of hatching eggs. Without the hatchery to produce chicks as needed, the commercial poultry industry as it exists today would be unknown.

Brooding. The brooding of chicks under artificial conditions dates back to the late 1800s when artificial incubators were used to furnish heat for brooding purposes. Many of the early incubators were of the simple type, in which the eggs were set in a box and the heat was supplied by a lamp or a stove. These incubators were often unreliable and the chicks often died. The development of the electric and gas incubators has greatly improved the brooding of chicks. These incubators are more reliable and the chicks are healthier.

The temperature requirement for baby chicks is 90°F for the first week. After the first week, the temperature may be reduced 5 degrees weekly until the chicks are 6 weeks old. At that age, they should be well feathered and able to withstand moderate temperatures. The humidity should be maintained at about 65-70%.

In the brooding of chicks, human judgment is necessary in daily care of the stock. In climates where there are wide variations in day and night temperatures, the caretaker must assume responsibility for the care and management of the chicks. The human element is essential to meet the situation. Overcrowding is a common mistake.

After a few hours, the chicks are usually hatched. The chicks should be picked up as soon as they are hatched. The mother hen should be removed. The chicks should be placed in a brooder. The brooder should be clean and dry. The chicks should be fed a special brooder ration. The water should be available at all times. The brooder should be protected from drafts and predators.

natively it refers to the manufacturing plant at which such ware is made. An older meaning is the art of making such ware in the use it becomes synonymous with the older definition of ceramics (see CERAMIC TECHNOLOGY). Pottery may be glazed or unglazed (see GLAZING).

Grades of pottery are distinguished by their color, strength, absorption (the weight of water soaked up when the piece is submerged expressed as a percentage of the original weight) and translucency (ability to pass light). All the properties refer to the material or "body" under any glaze present. See PORCELAIN.

China is white in color, strong, has less than 2% absorption, is always glazed, and is translucent in thin ware. Special types are bone china, containing phosphates from calcined bones as a fluxing material; hotel china, made extra thick for maximum strength and therefore not translucent; fruit china (also called fruit porcelain), containing ground glass to give a translucent body maturing at a moderate firing temperature.

Stoneware has a cream or brown color, high strength, 0-5% absorption, and no translucency; it is often unglazed. Chemical ware is an example.

Earthenware (sometimes known as emittreous china) is white or ivory, has less strength than china or porcelain, 3-10% absorption, and no translucency; it is usually glazed. No everyday table ware is of this type. Faience is a special type with a soft porous red or yellow body covered by an opaque glaze. Majolica ware is a type having over 15% absorption and an opaque glaze over a relatively weak red or gray body.

Other special types of pottery are Parian ware, a body with a high flux content, usually unglazed, which fires to a smooth marblelike finish; and terracotta, a yellow red or brown earthenware with no glaze, used for art sculpture and similar purposes.

The firing of glazed ware is usually done in two steps: first the unglazed body is fired to give it strength, and then after the glaze is applied, it is refired at a lower temperature (except porcelains, where the second firing is at a higher temperature).

Absorption is determined by the presence of open pores or voids in the fired material into which water can penetrate. In general, the higher the firing temperature, the lower the absorption. Body color is determined mainly by raw material purity. Strength depends on the porosity and also on the amount and type of glasses and crystals developed in the body on firing. Translucency is obtained in products in which there is low porosity and little difference in index of refraction between the glass and crystals in the body. See CLAY. [4144]

## Poultry production

The production of poultry embraces all phases in the life cycle of chickens, turkeys, ducks, and geese, but does not include game and other wild birds. The life cycle includes the incubation of the egg, the growing of the stock for either meat or egg production, the egg-laying phase, and the breeding stage when fertile eggs are produced for incu-

tion. The subject will be discussed with particular reference to chicken, followed by a general discussion of turkey, duck, and geese.

**Incubation.** The practice of hatching eggs by artificial means rather than by the use of the hen dates back to the day of ancient Egypt. A science has been developed primarily in the latter part of the twentieth century. The modern incubator is a scientific piece of equipment designed to give the developing embryo an ideal environment with automatic control of temperature and humidity, and to include labor saving and safety-control devices.

The temperature required for incubation is 99.5°F. Variation of a degree or more from the optimum level will delay or advance the number of hours required for the chick to hatch. Uniformity of temperature is important to maintain a hatching schedule with eggs to go into the incubator at a specified time and the resulting chicks to be removed and hipped all at a prescribed time. Forced circulation of air around the egg by the use of fans ensures an even distribution of the heat, whether it be from electric coil, hot water pipe, or other source. Thermatic controls maintain the desired temperature.

Next in importance to heat control comes humidity regulation, the purpose of which is to control the moisture within the egg, yet permit some evaporation. Otherwise the embryo may drown. See EGGS (FOWL). The requirements are not so exacting as those for temperature: a 60% relative humidity is satisfactory until the time of actual hatching, when it should be raised to 90%.

Providing ventilation to an incubator thereby ensuring sufficient oxygen is still a matter of judgment rather than scientific control. Most incubators have a manual control which is set to give sufficient ventilation when the machines are located in a warm well-ventilated room. The room itself must receive serious consideration and be designed to maintain uniform conditions regardless of outside weather change. Ventilation within the incubator is of great importance when the chicks are hatching and for a few hours following the hatch when they are drying off. Suffocation may easily occur with inadequate ventilation at this time. Because of the special requirement when the chicks are usually hatching, most incubators are designed to operate in two sections: one to hold the eggs for the first 18 days and the other a strictly a hatching compartment.

It is necessary to turn the egg every 4 or 6 hours until the embryo is about ready to hatch. This prevents the embryo from adhering to the shell membrane. Automatic devices are timed to take care of this chore. Other than to see that the equipment is functioning properly, an incubator does not require any measure of human control from the time the egg is set until the thirteenth day of incubation.

The normal hatching expectancy is 80-90 chicks from each 100 eggs set. The number varies with efficiency of operation of the incubator and the skill

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Nutrient requirements for chickens in percentage or amount per pound of feed

	Start 0-8 week	Crow 8-18 week	Lay 18- week	Feed 18- week
Total protein %	16	15	15	15
Vitamins				
Vitamin A (units USP)	100	100	100	100
Vitamin D (ICU)	90	90	5	5
Thiamine (mg)	0.8	?	?	?
Riboflavin (mg)	13	0.8	10	17
Pantoic acid (mg)	4	4	1	4
Niacin (mg)	1	?	?	?
Pyridoxine (mg)	13	?	13	13
Biotin (mg)	0.04	?	?	?
Choline (mg)	600	?	?	?
Folic acid (mg)	0.5	?	0.11	0.16
Minerals				
Calcium %	1.0	1.0	5	5
Phosphorus %	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Salt %	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Iron (mg)	0.1	0.16	?	?
Manganese (mg)	5	?	?	15
Iodine (mg)	0.5	?	0.2	0.5
Zinc (mg)	2.0	?	?	?

Source: National Academy of Sciences, National Research Council, 1954. USP = United States Pharmacopoeia; ICU = International Unit.

all the needed proteins mineral and vitamin. The requirements in this respect have been fairly well established more research having been done on the diet of baby chicks than on any other phase of the poultry business. The recommended allowances for the various components of the diet are shown in the table. Feed ingredients which supply the needed nutrients when mixed together in a ground form are known as mash and this is fed to the chicks as soon as possible after they are hatched. The amount of feed is not limited in any manner. Along with it the chicks are fed a hard indigestible grit such as granite on the supposition that it aids in the utilization of the mash. Proof of this is not definite however. Sometimes the mash is compressed into pellet form and fed in that manner or the pellets may be reground to a crumbly consistency. The object in producing the pellet or its crumbly form is to improve the physical condition of the feed and thus to encourage a greater intake. Some feeding materials that in themselves are not palatable to chicks may be used to advantage if prepared in pellet form.

Before sufficient knowledge had been gained to mix a complete feed for chicks the practice was to have chicks get out in the sun line with a supply of grain available. Milk was used instead of water and grain were fed in place of mash. Today research specialists in both the agricultural experiment stations and the feed industry are deluged with what the chicks require for rapid growth and good health. The farmer's obligation is to see that the feed is placed before the chick. Even that is purely mechanical because the feed is delivered in bulk and is stored in bins from which it moves directly into automatic feeder that run throughout the poultry house. Science has

made it possible for one man to take care of 10,000 or more chicks because the operation is mostly mechanical. Before all this could come about the nutritive requirements had to be known so that the feeding could be as accurate and simplified as is now possible.

For young chickens to be old for broiling or frying purposes the diet remains the same as needed for baby chicks. However if the purpose in rearing is to produce pullets that are to be used later for egg production the diet is changed at about the age of 8 weeks. Growth in chickens tends to divide itself into two periods. The first consists of a constantly increasing rate of gain in weight week by week. The second by a constantly decreasing rate of gain in weight week by week. In chicken the break between the two periods comes at the age of about 8 weeks although diet temperature breeding and disease will tend to alter this to some extent. Therefore starting at the age of 8 weeks growing pullets are fed diets that are lower in protein as well as some of the other nutrients as indicated in the table. Under practical field conditions the change is more radical than indicated in the table because vitamin D is not needed in the feed when the chickens have access to direct sunshine. Also some of the other vitamin requirements may be met by having the young pullets on a good green range and the diet may be altered accordingly. When the stock is being reared indoors or at a season when range facilities are unattractive the feed must be complete or the pullet will become unhealthy and growth will be stunted.

**Egg production.** The period of egg production is marked by a normal increase in the rate of laying from the time the first eggs are produced until the flock reaches a peak of 10-80% production that is 70-80 eggs from 100 pullets daily. This level generally is reached by the time the pullets are 8 months old. The production level will then gradually decline and the peak will never again be reached in the life of the bird. Usually a complete feather molt occurs after egg production has continued for a year and during this molting period the rate of laying may be as low as 10%. After new feathers have been grown egg laying resumes for another year. This process is repeated year after year during the lifetime of the fowl with a gradual decline in rate of egg production each succeeding year.

Several factors have an effect on the egg laying behavior of a flock of chickens. These include environmental conditions, health and genetic constitution (see Genetics).

After a suitable mixture of feeding material has been established to meet the requirements the resulting feed is fed in either mash or pellet form. The form is indicated for chicks usually by the use of automatic feeders. On farms where grain is grown a portion of the diet may be supplied in whole grain and thus the cost of the feed is reduced. Because grain are primarily a source of energy and are deficient in protein, mineral and

ness, a m h t pplem nt grai must be more  
to entrat n these fact rs th n therw i w uld  
be necer ary Comm c i legg prod ct n i be om  
ing m re and m re a peciality and the u e of  
h grown grains i f t lo i g its popularity A

and ted in the s e of ne b t n and the  
growing of h ks th f r m n longer needs t  
la th tech al k wledge to feed a flock of lay  
ngbird p perl He mu t ee that the mach nery  
factu lea i th mo n techn cal problems to  
d b tcherrma and the feed d ale

Health. D eases f po ltry ha pl gued the in  
d try at all times and t l p ent pr blem but  
the empha w d rected tow d g e ve tion of  
d e s and maintenance of health, rath r than ob  
taining cure f pec fic disease An ad lt hen  
that i perf rm eco m lly s producer of  
g m t b h althy individ l She m t be  
ward free f para tes a d n t be retarded in  
growth by d e po e to d i e Mort lty in  
young took b been b ought f rly w ll unde  
centr l by the ut l l m i at n of p llorum d e

th ugh blood test of the p e t tock u e  
f drug to keep oc d os der co tr l v c a  
no h N aile d i se l r y n t hents d  
for pos. d feed ng a i b i o c to g e greater re  
sist t o the sect us ( e A TRIBIOTIC COC  
cure NEWCASTLE DISEASE) Para sites may be kept  
under c tr l by the j d us e f drugs d  
ben als at the p per time coupled with m nage  
ment p a t i e s th t d keep th i side of  
m nary t f w level Breed g f r h lth and  
lo m rality h t ken new sign f e d  
strain f h i ken are a labl that ha dem  
strated p e t d a The e are me d s  
m nary still in b n ent ted chiefly tho de l g  
with h t s termed th le k m c mplex r  
leone a r m lling in par ly d t t l d b lty

Environmental problems Th ffect f th en  
are out o the beha r f ch k eed  
f much sex. h b n e n t incl des th p blems  
f troll g the b s and snt ty of light, th  
temp rat h m d ty e tilat and floor p ce  
n thry ff t h alth and p od t Den ty  
f th pop l t n s oth fa t r Light has b n  
d i bject f n d bl at dy a d e p od c  
was ask own t b r e ded s f h i k n b  
reced to l e n than 12 h f l h d ly H wev r  
p g tock does s h w a m l r spon e n  
d m b p t g with te Opt m m t mpe at e  
f g s p r d t i h t been ext bl hed b t  
h km cem qu te adj t ble n t respect nd  
d i t p e f r m t f t rily w d a ge f  
smp t f t th y b m l mated H m d  
s and entil t regu me t s e r l l h ghly  
f r e al. In th gen l m f k wled  
f r e s g t n d f f r m t r d g th  
p t g v f th f w l wh h mu t b d to d  
be th re l f t f she nm t n be  
Pro only determ ed

Heredit y Alth gl e s h b d much t  
ad k ledge f th n trit l need f th  
d l e s a d b perm itted the t l f m y d s

ea e the genetic c titutio of a fowl i highly  
import nt as well Fort nately ge et i st ha e  
been w r k ng in th i field nd th re are n w  
chicken th t can grow rapidly and p od ce eggs  
at h gh rates wh n they are pr perl fed and man  
aged The cro s g f b red ha res lited in marked  
impro ment in the devel pme t f b il rs a d  
m at chickens The d m i ance of certain de s able  
tr ut uch as the inher tanc f l e r plumage  
l i enabled the broiler g w e r t use m les w th  
th ch ract r i t t prod ce off pr ng with light

I red feather des red by th m rket Sex of the  
hicks may be d term ned by the c l r f th down  
when the ch ck hatch o by ther markings and  
the se ing of ch ck by phy ical e s m i a t i n has  
repl ed the p tice of u ing d f f rent breeds f o  
tak adv tage of k w n her ted e d fferen es

I heritance of egg prod ction qu lities has  
p o ed t be m pl ated pr blem Starting r g  
ally w th the u e f m les pedig eed f om high  
prod ction h n many flock er th pa t 40 y ar  
ha been brought to levels of prod ct i ra g ng  
from 00—5 egg per l r d per y r Con der g  
that p od ct i n n th farm flock orig all wa  
abo t 150 gg per b rd th ad e h been well  
worth while Howe s a platea f egg prod ction  
devel ped with tra afte the use f ped g reed  
m les o r several ge erati n and t wa m t u l l  
t t w re ed th t fu ther impr ement  
took pl ce Int n i e breeds g of diff rent tr ns  
w th n th breed f l l wed by ro s g has br ight  
abo t a inc e in p od uct i n p to le l e eed  
ng 200 eggs pe l r d This t nd ha h d a t e d  
ncy to place th breed g pe t in the hands  
of rel t ely few nd i d u l c mpa es be  
au e many h d mu t be kept a d tested f  
th r ability t sh w mpr em nt when cro ed  
th t t an expen per t n The t l farm  
p rat f th future w ll dep d t r ly on an  
out de rgan t n to b eed the type f h k  
de ed nd he w ll be respon ble f r onl the  
ph cal ca f the stock.

Marketing The ad ent f the cha n tore system  
in mer h nd i ng b ht with t a dem nd fo  
l g qu ntities f po ltry prod ct of m f r m  
gr de nd qu lty These we e difficult to btain  
wh h f r m f l l wed h s own in lin t n A  
a esult p lry p od m b p od uced nd  
mark ted unde wh t termed teg at on a s  
system wh eby the prod cer ag ees t m k t his  
product th gh pre s r ched ha n l with h ks  
f r m d f m t nd fed d t des e ned t  
t th b t n q lity lin m n t n s cooper  
t a t r v o th m purpo e nd  
t e th farm n l m nt f ntr l Th ind d  
u l p od des ng t m ket p od u t thr ugh  
m at h n n l t h than an integrated sy tem  
m t k p th q lty f his p od t t p e k  
lev l th rw the utl ts w ll be gr tly e  
tried l part ul g q lty need to be  
tes d bec feshne l s t r p dly unless  
e kept nder r f g t on f m the time  
they l d u t l they e b th con m

**Economics** Science has made the production of poultry and eggs a relatively simple matter in so far as the farmer or actual producer is concerned. Large scale operations with thousands of birds now exist and under improving management the cost of production per unit of output is being brought lower and lower. This advantage in turn is passed on to the consumer who purchases poultry products in competition with other foods of equal nutritive value. With the price advantage in favor of poultry products the outlook for the future seems good.

**Turkeys, ducks, and geese.** The general principles underlying the care of chickens apply equally well to turkeys, ducks, and geese even though the scientific requirements for the other species have not been so thoroughly determined. However, research in nutrition and disease control is progressing rapidly with some attention being given to genetics. Because turkeys, ducks, and geese are reared for the production of meat, they come into direct price competition with broilers and other meat products of the chicken. In due course and with sufficient research, there is every reason to believe that many of the advantages now enjoyed by the producer of chicken will be equally available to the farmer interested in turkeys, ducks, or geese, and that these species will be as commercialized as the chicken. See CHICKEN, DUCK, GOOSE, TURKEY. See also EGG PROCESSING, EMBRYOLOGY, OVIUM, REPRODUCTION, ANIMAL.

[C.S.F.L.]

**Bibliography.** See AGRICULTURAL SCIENCE (ANIMAL).

## Pound

A unit of mass in the English absolute system of units. Also a unit of force in the English gravitational system. The British standard of mass is the British Imperial Pound of which a standard is preserved by the government. The United States standard mass is the avoirdupois pound defined as the gravitational attraction or weight of  $1/220462^9$  kilogram.

A one pound force is the weight of the British Imperial Pound at a standard location that is at any point where the acceleration of gravity is  $32.174 \text{ ft/sec}^2$ . In terms of Newton's second law, there is a derived unit of mass—the slug—which is that mass to which a force equal to the standard pound will impart  $1 \text{ ft/sec}^2$  acceleration. A one pound force is equal to  $4.448^9$  newton and produces an acceleration of  $3.174 \text{ ft/sec}^2$  when acting on a one pound mass. See FORCE, MASS, GRAVITATIONAL UNIT SYSTEMS OF WEIGHT. [L.V.]

## Poundal

A unit of force in the British absolute system of units. One poundal is the force which will impart to the British Imperial Pound mass an acceleration of  $1 \text{ ft/sec}^2$ . The foot is  $1/3$  of the Imperial Standard Yard. One poundal is  $0.13825 \text{ newton}$ . See FORCE. [C.E.P.]

## Pour point

The lowest temperature at which an oil will pour when cooled under prescribed test conditions. Because petroleum oils are complex mixtures which become plastic solid when cooled, several solidification temperatures are used, each defined by a definite test procedure. The cloud point is the temperature at which a solid phase separates from solution. For a grease, the dropping point is the temperature at which the plastic solid becomes sufficiently fluid to flow through an orifice. For waxes, the melting point is the temperature at which the material becomes fluid enough to drop from the test thermometer. The congealing point is the temperature at which a sample wetting the thermometer appears to congeal and hence rotate with the thermometer. See OIL ANALYSIS. [W.O.]

## Powder metallurgy

A process of the metallurgy industry involved with the production of finely comminuted metal powder and of metal objects directly from the powder.

The products are usually finished parts such as gears or cams. The technique employed consists essentially of subjecting the metal powder to pressure and heat. The heat treatment called sintering is performed at some temperature below the fusion point of the main constituent of the product. Instead of pure metal powders, alloy powders may be used singly or as mixture. Also metal powders may be used in mixtures with metallic compounds or nonmetallic components. Powder metallurgy thus permits the production of metallic or metal-like bodies of many shapes without the use of orthodox metallurgy practices such as melting and casting.

**Industrial applications.** Since many refractory metals have such high melting points that conventional melting and casting is difficult, powder metallurgy is the ideal method of producing such products as tungsten for filaments. Metal combinations in which the characteristics of each constituent are retained are of particular interest for certain electrical applications, and they can be produced by powder metallurgy methods. For instance, heavy-duty electrical contacts and welding electrodes combine a skeleton of refractory metal highly resistant to abrasion and arcing with a second metal of low melting point and high conductivity. Allowing between the constituents negligible so that the original properties of the individual metal are preserved.

Other examples are the manufacture of cemented carbide high-speed cutting tools, cermet, and dispersion alloys. Cermet consists of a predominant nonmetallic or ceramic constituent and a metallic binder phase. Dispersion alloys contain minute nonmetallic particles dispersed in a metallic matrix. They find important applications in nuclear reactor components such as fuel elements where the constituent combination of structural and fissionable material



Fig. 1. Assortment of metal powder particles (MIPWD) of different sizes.

and other materials, which contain a large number of atoms and the structure of the metal is not uniform.

Of the various methods of producing metal powder, the most common is the use of a mechanical process. This involves the use of a mill to grind the metal into a fine powder. The particles are then collected and stored for use.

The most common method of producing metal powder is the use of a mechanical process. This involves the use of a mill to grind the metal into a fine powder. The particles are then collected and stored for use.



Fig. 2. Schematic diagram of the mechanical process for producing metal powder. The metal is fed into a hopper, then into a mill where it is ground into a fine powder. The powder is then collected and stored for use.

Current collector brushes in electric machinery are laminated metal powder products. Copper lead bearings which are not suitable in the liquid or solid state are typical of metal powder alloys. Other applications of metal powder include dental alloys, chemical reagents, catalysts, explosives, and pyrotechnics. Other uses include cement additives, pigments, and flame-retarding agents.

**Powder sources production characteristics**  
Virtually all metals and metalloids and many of their alloys and compounds are available in powder form. They may be obtained from the melt or by other methods such as mechanical alloying. The method of production may be classified into mechanical physical chemical and electrical processes. They include crushing, milling, machining, grinding, atomizing, condensation, reduction, precipitation, and plasma electrolysis. The characteristics of the powder depend greatly on the method of production. The size of the individual particles can be made to vary over a wide range of magnitudes of  $\mu$  and  $\text{mm}$  and may be uniform or non-uniform. The shape of the particles is also important. The surface area of the particles is directly related to the size of the particles. This has an extremely important bearing on the properties of the powder in behavior during processing, to the body and the ultimate properties of the products. Another factor affecting the properties of the powder is the shape of the particles. This too depends on the method of producing the powder. Particles of mechanically comminuted powders are generally elongated or flake-shaped. Particles of physically produced powders are generally spherical in shape but may be spheroidal in shape. Particles of chemically produced powders are always porous, often irregularly shaped and alloyed with other elements. The size of the particles depends on the method of production. The size of the particles may be controlled by the use of various methods. The most common method is the use of a mechanical process. This involves the use of a mill to grind the metal into a fine powder. The particles are then collected and stored for use.

Some metal powders are produced by the use of the electrolytic method. This involves the use of an electrolytic cell to produce the powder. The metal is dissolved in the electrolyte and the powder is deposited on the cathode. The powder is then collected and stored for use.



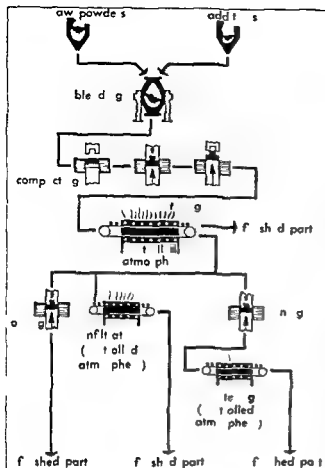


Fig 3 Flow chart for fabrication of parts by powder metallurgy (Metal Powder Industries Federation)

powders are produced by chemical precipitation reduction and electrolysis. Stainless steel powders can be produced effectively only by chemical disintegration of a specially prepared heat metal but iron powder can be produced by atomization reaction with solid or gaseous reducing agents electrolysis or decomposition of iron carbonyl.

#### Powder conditioning and processing technique

The powdered raw material are cleaned dry stored and sized. Usually they are mixed with lubricating agents to facilitate pressing. Very little metal or compound powders require careful admixing of organic binder to improve coherency during and after compaction. Powders for alloys or composite structures are prepared by blending desired proportion of the ingredients. The blending operation is carried out under various conditions and usually with dry powder. Often blending is combined with ball milling. Precautions must be taken to prevent contamination deterioration or ignition of the powder during storage handling or blending.

Most commonly the powders are pressed in a coherent mass and the resulting compact are sintered. The pressing operation is generally carried out at ambient but sometimes elevated temperatures. The powders are confined in closed dies and heavy hydraulic or quick acting mechanical tableting press provide the compacting force.

Rolling of powders into strips; another method of compaction in special cases such as the manufacture of porous filter compression of the powder prior to sintering is omitted entirely. Mold that allow for shrinkage are used either before or during sintering to impart the desired shape to the powder mass. When pressing is done at sufficiently elevated temperature the sintering operation takes place under pressure. The application of heat during or after the compression of the powder produces a structure with physical properties comparable to those of similar material obtained by fusion. The sintered structure however possesses a fine porosity which has an adverse effect mainly on ductility. The porosity results from incomplete densification during compression and from gas evolution during heating. It cannot be completely eliminated by the sintering phenomena of diffusion recrystallization grain growth and shrinkage.

Although the properties of the object after sintering are frequently adequate for the finished product it is sometime necessary to improve them by further operation such as additional cold or hot compression metal working heat treatment or the impregnation of the pores with a lower melting metal. Certain other finishing steps may also be required including machining plating buffing sanding grinding or barrel tumbling. A number of applications require joining operation. Brazing soldering or welding of the part onto other metal base is common practice in the hard metal and refractory metal industries. Finishing and joining operation must frequently be adapted to the specific properties of the materials. Thus care must be taken in machining because of the porosity. Plating method must be adjusted to prevent corrosion caused by the porosity and special fluxes or inert or reducing gases media must be used to prevent excessive oxidation during brazing and welding at high temperature.

**Critical evaluation** A comparison of powder metallurgy with more orthodox metallurgical methods reveal the advantages and limitations of the method. This may well serve as a guide for the engineer and manufacturer confronted with the problem of selecting the most suitable production method for a particular job.

Powder metallurgy does not make up a preponderant segment of the metallurgical industries. In spite of the accelerated growth of this different branch powder metallurgy has remained a limited and specialized field. The reasons for this are both economic and technical in nature. Sintered starting material with the exception of titanium powder are more expensive than the raw material. Tool and dies must be designed and usually return their cost only when many thousands of the same part are produced. Special tool are required for the forming of complex shapes because the powder does not flow readily to lateral protrusions under high specific pressure during compression stroke which is an important

prod. can r to. Also the l rge su f ces of the  
po d r s a e pro e t e rce i e ga l s rption  
bradit b ittl ne of th end pr duct

Let powd r m tall rgy d e hav a p tential f r  
further expan on and de elopment of n way p l e  
to x Beryllum p odu t are made exclu sly l y  
powd m tall rgy Addu n l and per lap p c  
to ul r d a ces m y le expected in the lectr n  
x s m l e and ocket field where po de metal  
l gy d per n all y s refract ry metal and  
m e a m s i with unustal p ope t e ar l e ng  
der l ped. S VITALURGY SINTERING [COCO]

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M. tall rgy 3. 1. 1919-1920

## Power

The m e r a t e f o g w o r k L a k w r k p o w e r i s a  
w l e q u a n t i t y t h a t a q u a n t i t y w h c h h a m a g  
s t u d e b t n d c t i s S o m u t i t s u e d f  
t h m e t e r o f p w e r a r e t h e w a t t (1 j u l o f  
r k p e r s e c o n d) a n d t h e h o p e r (550 f t  
r k p e r s e c o n d) S H o r s f r o w n  
W a t t h a k

Usefulness of the concept Power a n e p t  
w h c h l e u d t o d e c i s e t h e o p e a t i n f a y  
m e m o d c e w h h a s f w s e n r g y o r r  
I n m a n y p r o b l e m s f a p p a r a t u d e n t h p w r  
r t h e r t h a n t h e t o t a l w o r k t h d n e d e t e r m e s  
t h e l e t h e c o m p o n n t u e d A n y d e v i c e c a n d o  
a t g a m n t f w r k b y p e r f o r m i n g f r a l i n g  
t a l a l o w s t e r o f p w r t h t a l y d i n g  
t a l l y f l o w e r i f a l a g e m u n t o f w o r k  
m t b e d n e r a p i d l y a h i g h t w e r d e i e  
m d d l h p w m h n a e u a l l y l a r g e r  
m p l e m e n t e d d m x p e n i e t h a e q u i p  
m e n t w h h n e d o p a t e n l y l o w p w e A m  
t h b m u t l t a c e r t i n w g h t w l l h t t  
t g o n d m e p o w f l i s t l t t h e w e i g h t  
p d l y t h f i t r a s t l o w l y A n e l e c t r i c a l  
t e t m t b e l a r g e i s i n t i c n t  
t r a l n g y i n t o t a t h g h r t w i t h o t  
b n g d m e g e d

Electrical power The power  $P$  de c i p e d i n a d  
n e t n e l e c t r i c c i r c u i t  $P = VI$  w h e r e  $V$   
t h a p p l d p r i t a l d i f f e r e n c e a d  $I$  i s t h e u  
c u r r e n t p w r g e n i n w t h i s i f f i s t t  
n d i n a m p e r e I n a n a l t e a n g u r r n t s t r u t  
 $P = VI$  s o p h e r  $V$  a n d  $I$  r e t h e e f f i c i e  
t e s f i t h v l t g e a n d n t d p t h p h s e  
e l b e t w a t h e c u r r e n t a n d t h e v o l t a g e S e e  
t e r r a s s c e r r r

Power in mechanics C o d e l o c e  $F$  w h i h  
d k w a p r i c l L e t t h e m t n h m  
t r e d t o e d m e n n w t h t h d i s p l m n t  
m t h d m g e n b y x T h n l y d f i t n t h e  
f w e t t i m e w i l l g e b y

$$P = dW/dt$$

I n t h e q u i t w c a b e c d d a s f u n  
t n e t h r e x T e t i n g w a a f u n t n o f x

$$P = \frac{dW}{dt} = \frac{dW}{dx} \frac{dx}{dt}$$

I f w d x / d t r e p r e n t t h e v e l o c i t y o f t h e p a r t i  
c l e a n d d W / d x i e q u a l t h e f o r c e  $F$  a c c o r d i n g  
t o t h e d f n i t i o n o f w o r k T h u s

$$P = Fv$$

T h i s s t e n c e n v e n i e n t e x p r e s s i o n f o r p o w e r c a n b e  
g e n e r a l i z e d t o t h r e e d m e n s i o n a l m o t i o n I n t h i s  
c a s e i f  $\phi$  i s t h e a n g l e b e t w e e n t h e f o r c e  $F$  a n d t h e  
v e l o c i t y  $v$  w h i c h h a s m a g n i t u d e  $F$  a n d t r e p r e  
s e n t s t h e a n g l e

$$P = F v \cos \phi$$

T h e e q u a t i o n e x p r e s s e s q u a n t i t a t i v e l y t h e o b s e r v a  
t i o n t h a t i f a m a c h i n e i s t o b e p o w e r f u l i t m u s t  
r u n f a s t e n o u g h t o d o a l a r g e f o r e w o r k b o t h [ r w s ]

## Power amplifier

T h e f i n a l s t a g e i n m u l t i s t a g e a m p l i f i e r c i r c u i t  
c h a a u d i o a m p l i f i e r s n o r a d i o t r a n s m i t t e r d e  
s i g n e d t o d e l i v e r a p p r e c i a b l e p o w e r t h a t l a d

P o w e r a m p l i f i e r m a y b e c l a s s i f i e d u p o n t o a p p l y  
p o w e r t a g n g f o r m a f w w a t t i n n a i d o a m p l i  
f i e r m a n y t h t n d f w i t i n r a d i o t r a  
n s m i t t e r I n d a m p l i f i e r t h e l a d i s u a l l y t h e  
d y a m e t r i c i m p e d n c p e e n t e d t o t h a m p l i f i e r b y  
t o d e p e a k e a d t h e p r o b l e m i s t o m i n i m i z e t h e  
p o w e r d e l i v e r e d t o t h l o d e r a w d e r a n g e o f  
f r e q u e n c y T h e p o w e r a m p l i f i e r i n r a d i o t r a  
n s m i t t e r o p e r a t e o n e a r e l a t i v e l y n a r r o w r a n g e o f  
f r e q u e n c y w i t h t h l a d e n t a l l y a c o n t i n u o u s  
p a n

T h e m o d e r a t i o n o f p o w e r a m p l i f i e r s i n  
d e n t e d b y C l a s s A B B a n d C C l a s s C o p e r a  
t i o n s l i m i t e d t r a d i o f e q u e n c y w i t h a t u e d  
l o d T h e t h e l a s e s m a y b e u s e d f o r a u d i o a n d  
h i g h f e q u e n c y p r i n t F r d i s c o n o f i t  
m o d e f p a t o n s A m p l i f i e r

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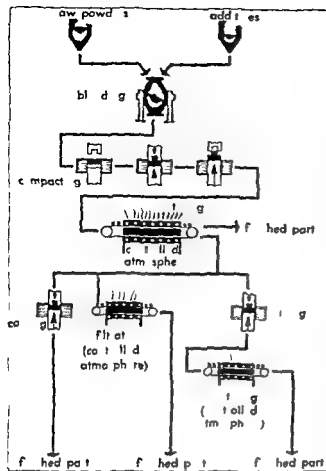


Fig. 2 Flow chart for fabrication of parts by powder metallurgy (Metal Powder Industries Federation)

powder are produced by chemical precipitation reduction and electrolysis. Stainless steel powders can be produced effectively only by chemical disintegration of a specially prepared heat metal but iron powder can be produced by atomization reaction with solid or gaseous reducing agent electrolysis or decomposition of iron carbonyl.

#### Powder conditioning and processing technique

The powdered raw material are cleaned, dry stored and tested. Usually they are mixed with lubricating agents to facilitate pressing. Very brittle metal or compound powder require careful admixing of organic binder to improve coherency during and after compaction. Powder for alloy composite structure are prepared by blending desired proportion of the ingredient. This blending operation is carried out under various conditions and usually with dry powder. Often blending is combined with ball milling. Precautions must be taken to prevent contamination, deterioration or ignition of the powders during storage, handling or blending.

Most commonly the powder are pressed to form coherent masses and the resulting compact are sintered. The pressing operation is generally carried out at ambient but sometimes elevated temperatures. The powders are confined in closed dies and heavy hydraulic or quick acting mechanical tableting presses provide the compacting force.

Rolling of powders into trips: another method of compaction. In special cases such as the manufacture of porous filter, compaction of the powder prior to sintering is omitted entirely. Mold that allow for shrinkage are used either before or during sintering to impart the desired shape to the powder mass. When pressing is done at sufficiently elevated temperature, the sintering operation takes place under pressure. The application of heat during or after the compaction of the powder produces a structure with physical properties comparable to those of similar material obtained by fusion. The sintered structure however is essentially fine porosity which has an adverse effect mainly on ductility. The porosity results from incomplete densification during compaction and from gas evolution during heating. It cannot be completely eliminated by the sintering phenomena of diffusion, recrystallization, grain growth and shrinkage.

Although the properties of the object after sintering are frequently adequate for the finished product it is sometimes necessary to improve them by further operation such as additional cold or hot compaction, metal working, heat treatment or the impregnation of the pores with a lower melting metal. Certain other finishing steps may also be required including machining, plating, buffing, sanding, grinding or barrel tumbling. A number of applications require joining operation. Brazing, soldering or welding of the parts into other metal fabrications is common practice in the hard metal and refractory metal industries. Finishing and joining operations must frequently be adapted to the specific properties of the articles. Thus care must be taken in machining the surface of the porosity. Plating method must be adjusted to prevent corrosion caused by the porosity and special fluxes or inert or reducing gas media must be used to prevent excessive oxidation during brazing and welding at high temperature.

Critical evaluation. A comparison of powder metallurgy with more orthodox metallurgical methods reveal the advantages and limitations of the method. This may well serve as a guide for the engineer and manufacturer confronted with the problem of selecting the most suitable production method for a particular job.

Powder metallurgy does not make up a preponderant segment of the metallurgical industry. In spite of the accelerated growth of this different branch, powder metallurgy has remained a limited and specialized field. The reasons for this are both economic and technical in nature. It is a slow starting material with the exception of fine titanium powder, are more expensive than other raw materials. Tool and die must be designed and usually return their cost only when many thousands of the same part are produced. Special tools are required for the forming of complex shapes because the powder does not flow readily into lateral projections. The use of high specific volume sintering compressive stresses which in turn improve the

Table 1 Representative data and performance data on power plants

Type	Unit range kw	Fuel	Plant weight lb/k	Height ft/k	Heat rate Btu/kwh
Central station					
hydr	10 000 100 000				
thermal	10 000 100 000	CGN		0 0	8 000 15 000
diesel	1 000 1 000	DC			10 000 1 000
Industrial (by product) steam	1 000- 1 000	CCW		50	1 000 1 000
Diesel engine	1 000 5 000	II	100 00	3	10 000 1 000
Automotive	1-300	II	5 10	0 1	1 000- 1 000
Off road	1 50	G		0 1 0 5	1 000 1 000
Truck	50-300	D	10 0		1 000 18 000
Marine (high speed diesel)	5 000 10 000	D	300 00		10 000 1 000
Naval diesel engine	1 000 100 000	DV	1 0		1 000 18 000
Airplane engine	1 000 3 000	G	1 3	0 0 0 10	1 000 1 000
Airplane engine	3 000	D	0 1		1 000 18 000

Coal Diesel fuel Diesel oil Gas Gasoline Natural Gas Water

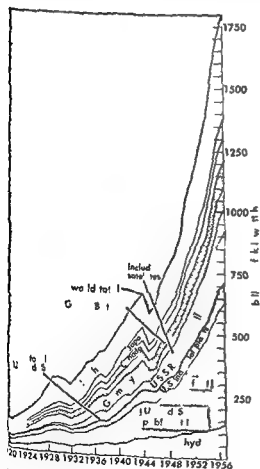


Fig 1 World total installed capacity (G B t) by fuel type (Ed El t l s t t t)

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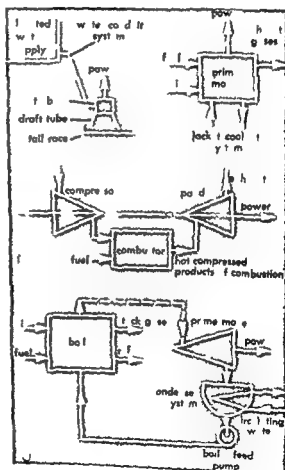


Fig 2 Rankine cycle system (a) hyd (b) t l m b t (c) g t b m (d) d g t m

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n d f t h p r p l n f l a n d w a t e r a n d i  
b o r n h c l e

higher plate circuit efficiency and are therefore used for higher power applications

**Class AB power amplifier** An improvement in the plate circuit efficiency can be had by using Class AB operation. However, while a Class A amplifier can be operated single-ended (one output tube), a Class AB amplifier must be operated push-pull. In Class AB operation the tube current does not flow for the complete cycle of the input voltage in a single-ended circuit; this would introduce excessive distortion. See PUSH-PULL AMPLIFIER.

**Class B operation** This class is often used for the power amplifier in an audio amplifier. The amplifier in this class must be a push-pull circuit. Theoretically, with ideal tubes the Class B amplifier can have a plate circuit efficiency of 78.5%; practically the efficiency is on the order of 50%, an appreciable improvement over that of Class A operation. Another advantage of Class B push-pull operation is that the average currents of the two tubes flow in opposite directions through the primary winding of the output transformer, resulting in no average magnetization of the core. This allows the use of smaller cores with savings in size and weight.

The load transformer coupled to the two tubes operating in push-pull. For maximum power transfer the dynamic load impedance presented to the amplifier should equal the conjugate of the output impedance of the amplifier when considered as an equivalent generator. In practice this is modified somewhat because the harmonic distortion is dependent upon the dynamic resistance. The choice of this load is therefore determined by the amount of harmonic distortion that can be tolerated.

The use of more sophisticated circuitry than that considered in an elementary presentation of a push-pull amplifier operating in Class B can produce nearly distortionless power amplification. This is of prime importance in the final amplifier stages of a high fidelity audio amplifier.

Power amplifiers can operate in Class B<sub>2</sub> with an appreciable amount of grid current flowing for a small portion of the cycle of an input sinusoidal signal. This imposes additional requirements upon the driving circuit of the amplifier. If the equivalent circuit of the driver has too large an equivalent output impedance the flow of grid current through this impedance will cause a distortion of the grid waveform. This problem is usually encountered in the design of driver circuits for Class B<sub>2</sub> amplifiers operating in the radio frequency region. Audio operation is usually restricted to Class B<sub>1</sub> operation because the usual form of phase inverter circuitry has a large output impedance. In radio frequency operation the transformer phase inverter can be used with tuned circuitry and air-core or powdered iron slug coils because the operation is essentially at one frequency.

**Class C operation** Because the plate current flows for less than one half cycle of the input sinusoidal signal, this class of operation is restricted to

radio frequency operation where a tuned load is employed. The load is usually the input impedance of an antenna or of an antenna matching network. The load voltage will be nearly sinusoidal even though the current in the tube flows in pulses because of the relatively sharp tuning of the load. This phenomenon allows the amplification of large amounts of power at plate circuit efficiencies as high as 80%. This is extremely important for applications requiring delivery of large amounts of power to the load.

The driving source must usually be called upon to deliver power to the grid circuit of the power amplifier in many cases as much as 10% of the power delivered to the load. This requirement is not excessive. A Class B power amplifier can be used in the grid driving circuit to obtain a quite efficient combination of driver and final amplifier.

[HFK]

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## Power factor

The ratio of watts average (or active) power to the apparent power of an alternating current circuit (see ALTERNATING CURRENT CIRCUIT THEORY). By definition and of general application

$$\text{Power factor (pf)} = \frac{\text{watts average power}}{\text{rms volts} \times \text{rms amperes}}$$

which is the ratio of instrument reading. A watt meter indicates average power and electrodynamic meter or iron vane instruments show rms voltage and current. For the steady state ac circuit under sinusoidal voltage and current  $\text{pf} = \cos \theta$  where  $\theta$  is the phase angle between the voltage and current. This definition is restricted to the wave of the same frequency. See WAVEFORM NONSINUSOIDAL for the more general case. [NLR]

## Power plant

A means for converting stored energy into work. Stationary power plants such as electric generating stations are located near sources of stored energy such as coal fields or river dams, or are located near the places where the work is to be performed as in cities or industrial sites. Mobile power plants for transportation service are located in vehicles as the gasoline engine in automobiles and diesel locomotives for railroad. Power plants range in capacity from a fraction of a horsepower to 500,000 kw in a single unit (Table 1). Large power plants are sited on location from construction made by different manufacturer. Smaller units are manufactured.

Most power plants convert part of the stored raw energy of fossil fuel into kinetic energy of a spinning shaft. Some power plants harness nuclear energy. For transportation the plant may produce a propulsive jet instead of the rotary motion of a shaft. Other source of energy include wind, tide,









Table 4 Cost of selected stationary electric power plants (investor-owned and business managed)

	Steam central station		Hydro		Steam industrial	
	Large	Small	Large	Small	Large	Small
Plant capacity kw	500 000	50 000	200 000	20 000	10 000	1 000
Investment \$ per kw	150	20	200	300	15	22
Fuel cost cents per mill on Btu	20	30			30	40
Cost of power mills per kw hr						
Total cost	47	130	35	65	52	90
Carrying cost on investment	25	57	30	57	33	50
Production cost total	22	73	05	08	19	40
Fuel	19	43			13	20
Labor maintenance supplies supervision	03	30	05	08	06	20

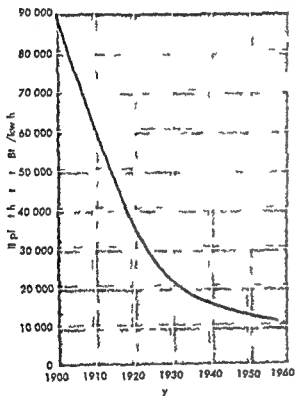


Fig. 8 Thermal performance of fuel-burning electric utility power plants in the United States

water pressure in the water path (see CAVITATION). Runners of the reaction type (high specific speed) are suited to low heads (below 500 ft) and the impulse type (low specific speed) to high head service (about 1000 ft). The lowest head (below 100 ft) are best accommodated by reaction runners of the propeller or the adjustable blade types. Mixed pressure runners are favored for the intermediate heads (50-500 ft). Draft tubes which permit the unit to be placed safely above flood water and without sacrifice of site head are essential parts of reaction unit installations.

With thermal power plants there are the basic limitations of thermodynamics which fix the effi-

ciency of conversion for heat into work. The cyclic standards of Carnot, Rankine, Otto, Diesel and Brayton are the usual criteria on which heat power operations are variously judged. Performance of an assembled power plant from fuel to net salable or usable output may be expressed as thermal efficiency (%), fuel consumption (lb per ft<sup>3</sup> or gal per hp hr or per kw hr) or heat rate (Btu supplied in fuel per hp hr or per kw hr). American practice uses the high or gross calorific value of the fuel for measuring heat rate or thermal efficiency and differs in this respect from European practice which prefers the low or net calorific value. Tables 1 and 3 give performances for several selected operations. Figure 8 reflects the improvement in fuel utilization of the United States electric power industry since 1900. Figure 9 shows variation in heat rate with load for several types of stationary plants and marine power plants.

In scrutinizing data on thermal performance it should be recalled that the mechanical equivalent of heat (100% thermal efficiency) is 2545 Btu/hp hr and 3413 Btu/kw hr. Modern steam plants in large size (75 000-500 000 kw units) and internal combustion plants in modest sizes (1000-5000 kw) have little difficulty in delivering a kw hr for less than 10 000 Btu in fuel (34% thermal efficiency). Lowest fuel consumptions per unit output (8500-9000 Btu/kw hr) are obtained in condensing steam plants with the best vacuum, regenerative reheat cycle using eight stages of extraction feed heating, two stages of reuperheat, primary pressures of 5000 psi (supercritical) and temperatures of 1150 F. An industrial plant in which electric power is generated as a by-product of the process steam load can have a thermal efficiency of 5000 Btu/kw hr.

The atomic power plant substitutes the heat of fission for the heat of combustion and the consequent plant differs only in the method of preparing the thermodynamic fluid. It is otherwise similar to the usual thermal power plant. Low reactor temperatures lead to the overwhelming preference for

steady turb then th m gast rb ne cycle When  
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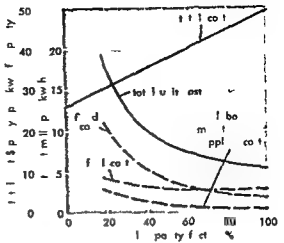


Fig 10 R p e t t t o f p w f o m a l g  
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\$ per kw per yr  

$$= K_1 + K_2 + 8760 K_3 \times \text{capacity factor}$$
 where  $K_1$  = capacity charge \$ per yr  
 $K_2$  = pe k prep ed ch g \$ p yr  
 $K_3$  = energy cost mills p kw hr

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Power supply electronic

A f e l t g y e m p l o y e d t o f h t h  
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f g y e h m l a t t e a d l i n t m  
t m o l n e B t t e s m f l a p r t  
b l e b r m p n e a d h a m a l l a  
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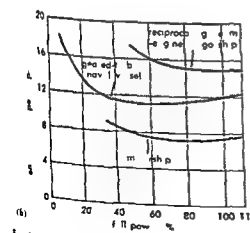
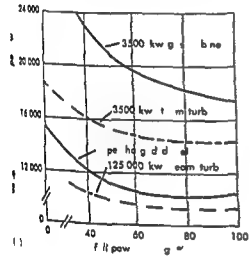


Fig 9 Comp so f h a t r a t e f s e l c t d t y p  
f l l h r y p o w p l t s d (b) m p o  
p l a n t s

One common method of classifying power supplies is by their use in electronic circuits. Most vacuum and gas tubes require a source of energy to energize their filaments or heaters; this type is known as a filament or heater power supply or imply as an A supply. Tubes require plate or anode voltages and transistors need voltages for their collectors and other elements. These voltages are supplied by a plate or anode power supply, sometimes called a B supply. Similarly, the tubes may also require a control grid power supply often called a C supply, and additional power supplies for the screen grid and suppressor grid.

If the source is one of alternating voltage, a transformer is usually used to raise or lower the voltage to the required level. The alternating current (ac) usually must be changed to a direct current (dc); this is accomplished by a rectifier. A rectifier allows current to flow mostly in one direction and a pulsating current results. This pulsating direct current is not suitable for most purposes and must be smoothed by a power supply filter or voltage regulator.

A power supply filter stores energy when the current is high and gives it up when the current is lower. The net result is to smooth out the variation in the current. The voltage regulator performs a similar function, but its operation is quite different. The gas tube type of voltage regulator has a characteristic constant voltage over a large range of current values. Vacuum tube regulator usually operate as variable resistances; the resistance decreases when the load is heavy and increases when the load is lighter. Voltage regulators deliver an almost constant output voltage in spite of variations in the load or in the input ac supply voltage. See VOLTAGE REGULATOR.

**Filament or heater power supply** The filament or heater power supply is used to heat the filaments of vacuum or gas tubes so that electrons may be emitted from the filaments. If an indirectly heated cathode is used, a heater element inside the cathode must heat the cathode to a temperature at which electrons will be emitted.

Most of the present-day tubes heated by alternating current use 6.3 or 126-volt heaters. A step-down transformer is employed to change the 115 volts of the ac lines to these voltages. As an example, the heaters of four tubes may be connected in parallel across the secondary of a heater transformer whose primary is connected to the 115-volt ac lines. The center tap or one side of the secondary is often grounded. The tubes must take 0.5, 0.5, 1.0, and 2.0 amperes respectively for a total of 4.0 amperes. The heater transformer must have a rated capacity of at least 4.0 amperes to supply the tubes. The voltage that the insulation must withstand is also often stipulated. Some tubes require other heater voltages, such as 2.5, 5, and 25 volts. Therefore, heater transformers with more than one secondary are useful.

Heater transformers are both heavy and expensive. To eliminate transformer heaters may be con-

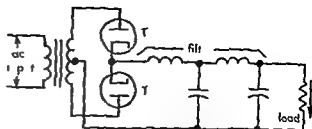


Fig 1 Typical plate power supply

nected in series across the ac line. Here each heater must take the same current and the sum of the heater voltage ratings must be nearly equal to the ac line voltage. Other tubes may be made for direct connection across the ac lines.

For portable operation, batteries are usually used to heat the filaments. The tubes usually require 1-3 volts, so that one or two cells of a dry battery or one cell of a wet battery will supply sufficient voltage. Tubes having 6.3 or 12.6-volt heaters may be operated from a wet storage battery, such as an automobile battery, but the weight of the battery decreases its portability. The filaments of the tubes are connected in parallel and one side of the battery is connected to the plate supply, so a complete circuit exists for the electron flowing in the tube.

**Plate power supply** The plate power supply usually supplies direct current of about 50 to 300 or 400 volts, depending on the tube and the application. Figure 1 shows the schematic diagram of a typical supply. The ac line energizes the primary of the transformer; the secondary is connected to the anodes of the rectifier tube T and T. The heater connections of the rectifier tube are omitted for clarity. The common cathode connection is connected to the double section L filter. This is the positive side of the filter. The negative side usually grounded is connected to the center tap of the transformer secondary. The load resistance is shown at the other end of the filter. A bleeder resistor is sometimes connected across the load to prevent the output voltage from increasing to dangerous values when the load is light.

The power or plate transformer should be selected to have a sufficiently high secondary voltage to supply the desired output voltage. Allowance must be made for the voltage drop or increase caused by the type of rectifier circuit employed and for the voltage drop in the rectifier tube and the filter elements caused by the combined load and bleeder currents. Also, the transformer secondary current rating must be sufficient to supply the combined currents. The rectifier tube must have plate voltage ratings sufficiently large for the transformer secondary voltage and current rating sufficiently large for the combined load and bleeder current and for the peak current encountered in the particular rectifier circuit used. The filter capacitor should have a sufficient capacitance to remove the ripple of the output voltage and sufficient ohmic rating. The filter inductor should have sufficient inductance for smoothing low-frequency current carried and high-frequency voltage



load voltage. There is no spring to restrain the moving system which takes a position to indicate the angle between the current and voltage. The scale can be marked in degrees or in power factor. For a complete discussion of this instrument see PHASE METER.

The angle between the currents in the crossed coils is a function of frequency and consequently each power factor meter is designed for a single frequency and will be in error at all other frequencies. For low harmonic content the indication of the power factor meter is usually accepted for contract purposes.

**Polyphase power factor meters.** These meters are usually designed differently from single phase meters. For balanced polyphase loads their application is straightforward. For a quarter phase load two voltages 90° out of phase are present and each can supply one of the crossed coil of the power factor meter. If the voltages are unequal or their relative phase angle is different from 90° the indication will no longer have meaning.

Three phase power factor meters are built to connect the fixed coil in one line and the crossed coils between the other two lines. The meter is constructed with a 60° angle between the crossed coils. An unbalance in either voltage or angle will cause erroneous readings.

In the case of balanced four phase and balanced six phase loads single phase power factor meters can be used directly without any correction.

In the case of unbalanced polyphase circuits with harmonics various portions of the load may have different power factors and for the combined load there is no common phase angle. Consequently the statement that the power factor is equal to  $\cos \phi$  becomes meaningless. See WAVEFORM NONSINUSOIDAL. [H 50]

**Bibliography.** F. A. Laws: *Electrical Measurements* 2d ed. 1938. M. H. Stout: *Basic Electrical Measurements* 1950.

## Poynting's vector

A vector the outward normal component of which when integrated over a closed surface is an electromagnetic field represents the outward flow of energy through that surface. It is given by the equation

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{H} = \mu^{-1} \mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B} \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathbf{E}$  is the electric field strength,  $\mathbf{H}$  the magnetic field strength,  $\mathbf{B}$  the magnetic flux density and  $\mu$  the permeability. This can be shown with the aid of Maxwell's equations

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{H} (\nabla \times \mathbf{E}) - \mathbf{E} (\nabla \times \mathbf{H}) &= \nabla (\mathbf{F} \times \mathbf{H}) \\ &= -\frac{1}{c} \mathbf{E} - \mathbf{F} \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t} - \mathbf{H} \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} \quad (2) \end{aligned}$$

where  $\mathbf{D}$  is the electric displacement and  $\mathbf{F}$  the current density. Integration over any volume  $v$  and use of the divergence theorem to replace one volume integral by a surface integral give

$$\begin{aligned} -\int (\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{H}) \cdot \mathbf{n} dS \\ = \int \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{H} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{E} \right) + \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{J} \right] dt \quad (3) \end{aligned}$$

where  $\mathbf{n}$  is a unit vector normal to  $dS$ . In the volume integral  $\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{H}$  is the magnetostatic energy density and  $\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{E}$  is the electrostatic energy density. The integral of the first two terms represents the rate of increase of energy stored in the magnetic and electric fields in  $v$ . The product of  $\mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{J}$  is the rate of energy dissipation per unit volume as heat or, if there is a motion of free charges, that is replaced by  $\rho \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{E}$  being the charge density, it is the energy per unit volume used in accelerating the charges. The net energy change must be supplied through the surface which explains the interpretation of Poynting's vector.

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When an electromagnetic wave is incident on a conducting or absorbing surface, theory predicts that it should exert a force on the surface in the direction of Poynting's vector. See RADIATION PRESSURE. See also ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION; MAXWELL'S EQUATIONS; WAVE EQUATION. [WRS 1]

## Prairie

A land of tall grasses occurring in the humid or subhumid parts of the mid latitudes between the forests and the semiarid short grass steppes. The North American prairies are better known than those of other continents. The tall grass prairies occur on the more moist side toward the forest margins. They consist of tall grass 5-8 ft in height together with a variety of flowering plants.



Fig. 1. Mid-grass prairie near Agat, Nebraska. The short-grass part is a foot or less in height. (F. M. J. E. W. A. and F. E. C. M. I. Plate 1, 1938) 2d ed. McGraw-Hill 1938)

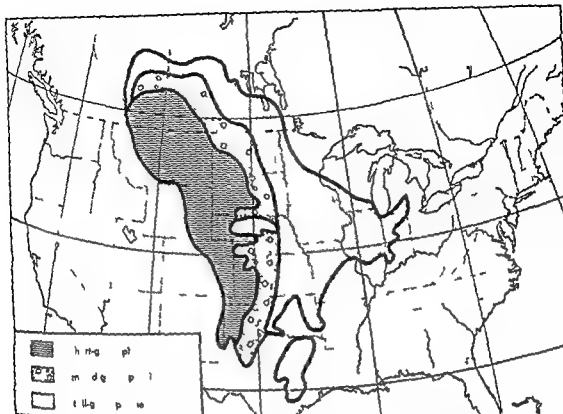


Fig 2 Type of t l g r t d t of the Rocky (Alt r l R h d C p t l n V C F ch G l T  
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S t e e r r (r m d)

### Prairie chicken

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l l y Th g a t e p h k n T p l o f r  
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P l l t t h d p p e a r d t l y t h g h t  
m c h o f t g l m d r a c i t h e r e  
m l d e r W t h h g e a g r s h t h p r  
p l p o p l i n f i t h b s d h a h i f t d i n t h  
C a n d p r m n i s r e c e n t l y Th e t  
n r p t t f i t h p e e t h b a t h h n



Th p t h u c k T y m p h s p d o l e g t h  
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t y M G w H 1949)

f m r l y f n d o n t h e A t l n t e c a t a l p l a n  
n w t n e t Th l r p r a i c h s k m T p a l l  
d t u s i p l e r t h n T p d a n d r e d s  
i n t h e s o t h w t e r n p l a t

load voltage. There is no spring to restrain the moving system which takes a position to indicate the angle between the current and voltage. The scale can be marked in degrees or in power factor. For a complete discussion of this instrument see PHASE METER.

The angle between the currents in the crossed coils is a function of frequency and consequently each power factor meter is designed for a single frequency and will be in error at all other frequencies. For low harmonic content the indication of the power factor meter is usually accepted for contract purpose.

**Polyphase power factor meters.** These meters are usually designed differently from single phase meters. For balanced polyphase loads their application is straightforward. For a quarter phase load two voltages 90° out of phase are prent and each can supply one of the crossed coils of the power factor meter. If the voltages are unequal or their relative phase angle is different from 90° the indication will no longer have meaning.

Three phase power factor meters are built to connect the fixed coil in one line and the crossed coils between the other two lines. The meter is constructed with a 60° angle between the crossed coils. An unbalance in either voltage or angle will cause erroneous readings.

In the case of balanced four phase and balanced six phase load, single phase power factor meters can be used directly without any correction.

In the case of unbalanced polyphase circuits with harmonics various portions of the load may have different power factors and for the combined load there is no common phase angle. Consequently the statement that the power factor is equal to  $\cos \phi$  becomes meaningless. See WAVEFORM NONSINUSOIDAL. [H 50]

**Bibliography.** F. A. Law, *Electrical Measurements*, 2d ed. 1938. M. H. Stout, *Basic Electrical Measurements*, 1950.

## Poynting's vector

A vector the outward normal component of which when integrated over a closed surface in an electromagnetic field represents the outward flow of energy through that surface. It is given by the equation

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{H} = \mu^{-1} \mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B} \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathbf{E}$  is the electric field strength,  $\mathbf{H}$  the magnetic field strength,  $\mathbf{B}$  the magnetic flux density and  $\mu$  the permeability. This can be shown with the aid of Maxwell's equations

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{H} (\nabla \times \mathbf{E}) - \mathbf{E} (\nabla \times \mathbf{H}) &= \nabla \cdot (\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{H}) \\ &= -\frac{1}{c} \mathbf{E} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t} - \mathbf{H} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} \quad (2) \end{aligned}$$

where  $\mathbf{D}$  is the electric displacement and  $\mathbf{c}$  the current density. Integration over any volume  $\tau$  and use of the divergence theorem to replace one volume integral by a surface integral give

$$\begin{aligned} -\int (\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{H}) \cdot \mathbf{n} dS \\ = \int \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{H} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{E} \right) + \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{J} \right] d\tau \quad (3) \end{aligned}$$

where  $\mathbf{n}$  is a unit vector normal to  $dS$ . In the volume integral  $\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{H}$  is the magnetostatic energy density and  $\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{E}$  is the electrostatic energy density so the integral of the first two terms represents the rate of increase of energy stored in the magnetic and electric fields in  $\tau$ . The product of  $\mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{J}$  is the rate of energy dissipation per unit volume as heat or if there is a motion of free charges so that  $\mathbf{J}$  is replaced by  $\rho \mathbf{v}$ ,  $\rho$  being the charge density, it is the energy per unit volume used in accelerating the charges. The net energy change must be supplied through the surface which explains the interpretation of Poynting's vector.

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## Prarie

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Fig. 1. Mixed grass prairie near Agate, Nebraska. The short grass prairie is a foot or less in height. (From J. E. Weaver and F. E. Clement, *Plants of the Great Plains*, McGraw-Hill, 1938.)

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# Preamplifier

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terist f g tra d c nd make the fr  
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b t u u f m S VOLTAGE AMPLIFIER

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d a u m n a l h w s m m o l y o c u i n  
f l d e d m o t b a l t k t h a t t h s  
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g e f t h e c l k w h m a y b e m l l o n o f  
y e l d e Th m x m m a g f P r e a m b r i n m  
e l f r d t m d by g e p h y c l m e t h d s  
a b t 3 x 10 y s S RADIOACTIVE MINERALS  
ROCK (AG DETERMINATION)

# Recambrian

Th m f r k l d r th n th C m b r a n r  
l e t p o d t h e t h h s t r y w h h b n  
l t f l i d t t h e x t e n e f l i f e B e e

Occurrence P ambr n r k s w d l y d s t  
b t d They o a l l t e t t s d u n  
d l e b o t e f i t h f t h m t h f a e S t u  
t r a l l y t h e y u m n l y n t w t y p f a r a s  
(1) n t h e t f p t l y d d e d m t a n  
(2) i n x t a s f a l t e l y l w e l e v t n  
l l e d b l d W h m t a n h s a r f o r m e d  
b y f i l d m d p l f t P r e m b a n r o c k c o m  
m l y t d e d b y m a s f g t e e l a t d  
g k t h r s t p w d b y t h m t a n  
b l d g m m t H w e n f t h e  
m n t t e s t h P r e m b a n k n d  
t h t d i g n e o s t r m s b e m e  
n e d Th h e l d f t h e r t h a l s a u n  
d l m l y b y m t b l t r o c k s b t h m  
b d d e d t h t h e y a r m t n s s t t  
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l e d b e d d e d d m n t Th e d m t s  
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( g y w k ) l c m m l y l m e t T h e s e  
k e a m l t o t h e b g f r m e d o n t h  
t h f a t o d a y F u t h m o m m r

PRE CAMBRIAN		PALEOZOIC				MESOZOIC	CENOZOIC
A N O Z O	E A B C A M A N I	PROTEROZOIC C (LATE PRECAMBRIAN)	CAMBRIAN	ORDOVICIAN	SILURIAN	DEVONIAN	CARBON- IFEROUS
A N O Z O	E A B C A M A N I	PROTEROZOIC C (LATE PRECAMBRIAN)	CAMBRIAN	ORDOVICIAN	SILURIAN	DEVONIAN	CARBON- IFEROUS
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A N O Z O	E A B C A M A N I	PRO					







Fig. 4. Photomicrograph of a thin section of a rock from the Canadian Shield. The scale bar indicates 18 inches. The rock is a gneiss, showing a foliated texture with alternating light and dark bands of minerals.

the Suez region outward to the Transvaal. In all of this territory rocks called Basement Archean or Proterozoic are present. Late Precambrian rocks, which local names have been given to also represented in the Transvaal Precambrian rocks of Proterozoic age have been intruded by an assemblage of igneous rocks called the Bushveld Complex.

**South America.** The Precambrian rocks of South America occur mainly in two extensive areas known as the Brazilian and Guianan Shields. The basal rocks of the Brazilian Shield are largely crystalline limestone and chert intruded by granite. In the Guianan Shield they consist of lavas, schists, gneisses, and granite. The Late Precambrian rocks in both shields consist of quartzite formation and their unconsolidated sediments.

**Mountain areas.** Precambrian rocks occur widely in many of the world's mountains. This type of occurrence is well exemplified in the Cordilleran region of North America and the Highlands of Scotland. In the former locality an outstanding cross-section of the Precambrian is exposed in the Grand Canyon of the Colorado River where Archean schists and granite are overlain with great uniformity by the Grand Canyon Series. The most widespread Precambrian rock, however, are the Late Precambrian Beltian sediments which underlie extensive areas in the northern part of British Columbia and most of northern Montana and Idaho. These rocks are defined by an uncertainty into two series. They have maximum thicknesses of over 60,000 ft.

In the Highlands of Scotland the main formation is a complexed by a Precambrian mountain building and fault. In the northwestern Highland Early Precambrian and a folded metamorphic and igneous gneiss of the Lewisian Series. This is followed by the little disturbed Torridonian. It is a sedimentary and igneous complex of Late Precambrian age. In the adjacent highlands of the Scottish Highlands the highly recrystallized sediment of the Moine and Dalriadan Series.

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## Precast concrete

A concrete may be defined by its strength in compression and by its behavior under stress. It is a composite material made of cement, sand, and gravel. The concrete is a mixture of these materials in such proportions that it will set and harden into a strong, durable material. The concrete is used in a wide variety of applications, from small structures to large buildings and bridges.

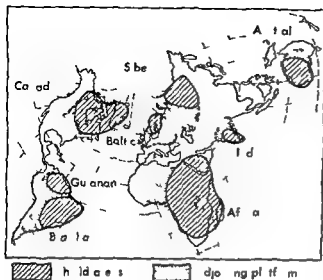


Fig 2 Shield areas and adjoining platforms composed of Precambrian rock (From R C Moore *Lithology and Stratigraphy* 2d ed McGraw-Hill 1958)

conglomerate is found containing striated and faceted pebbles, cobble or boulder up to 5 or even 10 ft in diameter enclosed in a massive unstratified matrix. Such deposits characteristically derived from glaciers indicate that the Precambrian climate at least at times was cold (Fig 1). All of these observations provide evidence that if the earth was originally molten, as most hypotheses of its origin assume, all its original crust must have been destroyed before the existing rocks were formed.

**Shield areas.** Large relatively stable areas with broad relatively flat surfaces or low topographic relief are characteristic of many Precambrian regions. The shield areas stood firm or moved differentially upward in contrast to areas of subsidence (Fig 2).

**Canada.** The Canadian Shield, the world's largest shield area, occupies most of northeastern Canada, Greenland, the Adirondack region of New York, and the northern parts of Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota. Most of this immense area has been mapped geologically in an approximate lithological way, but the complete succession of formations has been determined only in widely separate local areas. For this reason a tentative classification of the rocks of the shield into two major parts, the Early Precambrian or Archean and the Late Precambrian or Proterozoic, is in the present state of knowledge the only subdivision practicable.

The structural succession of formation has been determined locally in the shield by detailed examination using the criteria of top determination of sedimentary bed and lava flow. The most important of these criteria are graded bedding in graywacke and pillow types in lavas. Graded bedding forms in graywacke by the more rapid settling of coarse particles than fine particles during deposition (Fig 3). Pillows are believed to originate by the globulation of lava where extruded into water. The slow descent of the globules per-

mits the formation of a rounded pillow top crust before succeeding globules are deposited (Fig 4). These criteria of top determination combined with the relation hips of lavas and sediments to intrusions of igneous rocks make it possible to determine both the succession of formations and their division into separate groups or series by unconformities throughout areas of considerable extent. However, the correlation of rocks across the wide geographical or geological barriers between the shield areas is less certain. It has become the custom therefore to use local names of formations in areas where geological mapping has been most detailed.

The surficial rocks of the Canadian Shield belong mainly to four classes: (1) widely distributed basal lava flows and poorly sorted sediments of the type commonly deposited in the sea adjacent to mountains; (2) crystalline lime stone, pure quartzite shale or late completely sorted rocks of the types laid down in the sea adjacent to deeply weathered land of low relief; (3) shale, slate, iron bearing formation, lime stone and dolomite sediments probably deposited in elongated basins (in places the limestone and dolomite contain concentric structures believed to be of algal origin); (4) interbedded conglomerate, sandstone and lava flows laid down on land. The rocks of class 1 have been intensely folded and intruded by granite. They belong to the Archean. The strata of classes 3 and 4 lie at the top of the Precambrian succession and have been folded only in places. They belong therefore to the Proterozoic. The sedimentary rocks of class 2 have all been mountain built and intruded by granite, but the folding and recrystallization



Fig 3 Microphotograph of graded bedding in graywacke, Roy Township, Quebec, Canada (M. E. Wright, I. S. R. C. Ltd.)

about y axis is called precession and the motion can be predicted from the equation

$$M = I(\ddot{\theta} + \dot{\theta}^2 \sin \theta) + I(\ddot{\phi} + \dot{\phi}^2 \sin^2 \theta) + k(H + \omega H_y - \omega H) \quad (1)$$

Here  $M$  is the moment about the point  $O$ .  $H$  and  $H_y$  are the  $x$  and  $y$  components of the angular momentum  $H$  of the top and  $\omega$  and  $\omega_y$  are the angular velocities about  $x$  and  $y$  respectively. For the derivation of Eq. (1) see RIGID BODY DYNAMICS.

If  $\omega$  is the precession velocity of the top about the  $z$  axis, the  $x$  and  $y$  components of the angular velocity are  $\omega_x = \omega \sin \theta$  and  $\omega_y = \omega \cos \theta$ . The top is in a steady state with  $\dot{\theta} = 0$  and  $\dot{\phi} = \omega$ .

The angular momentum  $M$  of the top is

$$M = I\omega_x^2 + I\omega_y^2 + kI(\omega + S) \quad (1a)$$

where  $I$  is the moment of inertia of the top about the  $x$  and  $y$  axes through  $O$ .

Substitution of this equation into Eq. (1) (if  $\dot{\theta} = 0$  and  $\dot{\phi} = \omega$ ) gives

$$M = I[\omega(\omega + S)I - \omega\omega_x I] + I[\omega\omega_y I - \omega(\omega + S)I] + k[\omega\omega_x I - \omega\omega_y I] \quad (2)$$

For the case where  $\omega$  and  $\omega_y$  are negligible compared to the spin  $S$ , Eq. (2) becomes

$$M \approx S\omega I \quad (3)$$

$$M \approx -S\omega I \quad (3b)$$

$$M = 0 \quad (3c)$$

For the case illustrated in Fig. 1,  $M = -S\omega I$ ,  $M_y = 0$  (the moment due to  $H$  about  $y$ ) and  $M_x = 0$  (the external torque about  $x$ ,  $S = 0$ ).

From Eq. (3a) it is seen by experiment that the top slowly precesses about the  $y$  axis with a precessional velocity that is constant and clockwise when observed from above and given by

$$\omega = \frac{-S\omega I}{I_y S} \quad (\text{constant}) \quad (4)$$

From Eq. (3b)  $\omega = 0$  and the top precesses in a horizontal plane. From Eqs. (3) one sees that any moment exerted on the spinning body  $I$  about the  $x$  axis produces an angular velocity  $\omega$  precessing about the  $y$  axis and any moment exerted about the  $y$  axis produces an angular velocity  $\omega$  precessing about the  $x$  axis. Such a spinning body is the heart of the gyroscope and such moments  $M$  and  $M$  are called gyroscopic moments.

If the top of Fig. 1 is now placed in the more general position shown in Fig. 2, a similar process about the fixed vertical axis ( $Z$ ) due to the gravity moment will result. This motion is seen by a side view of the angular momentum vector  $H$ . Because  $S$  is very large compared to the angular velocity  $\omega$ , the precession of the coordinate system  $x$  and  $y$  is attached to the precession of  $H$  and precesses very nearly along the spin axis  $Z$ . It is given by  $H \approx kI S$ . From Fig. 2, the moment exerted to gravity directed normal to the plane of the top and  $Z$  is at all times and this produces a change  $dH$  in time  $dt$  of the angular momentum vector  $H$ . From Fig. 2,  $dH = H(\sin \theta)(d\psi)/n$  ( $n = \text{unit vector normal to plane } Z$ )  $dH/dt = H \sin \theta (d\psi/dt)/n$  and  $M = H I \sin \theta (d\psi/dt)/n$ . The equation for a gyroscope is  $M = dH/dt$  because  $H I \sin \theta = H \sin \theta$  ( $d\psi/dt$ ). Therefore

$$\frac{d\psi}{dt} \approx \frac{H I}{I_y S} \quad (5)$$

the precession is

The quantity  $\omega$  is satisfied if the axis of the top is vertical and  $Z$  with a velocity  $H I / I_y S$  and with  $\theta$  the angle between the top and  $Z$ . It is seen that Eq. (5) is the same as Eq. (4) if  $\theta = 90^\circ$  and the precession is small at any given time. The precession is the same as the precession of a gyroscope.

When the axis of the top is small and  $n$  is large, the precession is the same as the precession of a gyroscope. For the general case, the precession is the same as the precession of a gyroscope. The precession is the same as the precession of a gyroscope. (ASTRONOMY AND MECHANICS)

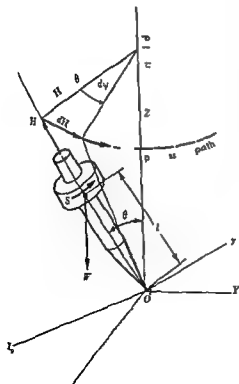


Fig. 2. A gyroscope in a general position. The top is tilted at an angle  $\theta$  from the vertical axis  $Z$ . The center of mass is at a distance  $l$  from the pivot point  $O$ . The top is spinning with angular velocity  $\omega$  about the vertical axis.

to tie the structure together. The connections can be a major design problem.

Form costs are much less with precast concrete because the forms do not have to be supported on falsework in the structure. They may be set on the ground in a convenient position. Furthermore, a thin wall is difficult to concrete if it must be cast vertically because the concrete has to be placed in the narrow opening at the top of the form. Such a wall is easily precast flat on the ground. Moreover, the large side forms are eliminated and so are the many braces needed to keep a vertical form in place.

With some types of precast concrete construction, no time is lost in waiting for concrete to gain strength at one level of a structure before the next level can be placed. Such delays are common with cast-in-place construction. Frequently, the permanent precast units can be used as a working platform which eliminates the need for a temporary deck.

Precast units can be standardized. Savings can then result from repeated reuse of forms and assembly-line production. Furthermore, high quality can be maintained because of the controls that can be kept on production under plant conditions. However, there is always the possibility that transportation, handling, and erection costs for the precast units will offset the savings.

**Floor and roof systems.** Precast concrete floor and roof systems may be similar to what is generally used for cast-in-place construction. The components may be bolted together, seated on each other or on brackets held by friction devices, prestressed, or the reinforcing of adjoining members welded and the gap between them filled with cast-in-place concrete. Also, certain systems peculiar to precast construction may be used:

1. I-beam type with cast-in-place or precast slab.
2. Hollow core type joists.
3. Embedded concrete block type.
  - a. With contact faces between units ground to provide a slight camber to the assembly.
  - b. With contact faces parallel but with a tension in the lower moment bars sufficient to align and hold the assembly together and to provide a slight camber.

4. Precast inverted T-beam joists with precast fillers between.

5. Integrally precast slab and T-beam joists.

**Tilt-up construction.** Originally, tilt-up construction was the name given to a method of precasting walls in which the units were cast on the ground at the place where they were to be erected, then tilted up to the vertical and anchored when they had gained sufficient strength. Later it became customary to refer to all types of precast wall construction as tilt-up construction.

Generally, the wall is concreted on a casting platform. Only side forms are needed. Sometimes it is advantageous not only for walls but for floor and roof panels to use cast successively units one on top of the other. A bond-breaking agent is applied

to the surface of the casting platform and between successive units.

Inserts usually are cast in the panels to facilitate lifting. The precast units may be lifted with a crane or a frame often equipped with a strong back or frame to distribute the uplift forces evenly.

**Lift slab or Youtz Slick method.** In one type of precast construction for buildings, popularly known as lift slab but sometimes called Youtz Slick after the developers of the method, floor and roof slabs for a multistory building are cast on the ground around the columns. The slabs are cast one on top of the other with a bond-breaking agent between them. Jacks atop the columns lift them to their final position where they are anchored. [F S M]

## Precession

An angular velocity of the axis of spin of a spinning rigid body which arises as a result of external torques acting on the body. Examples are the precession of a spinning top, the earth (precession of the equinoxes), an airplane propeller, or a gyroscope. Of these, the most familiar is undoubtedly the precession of the equinoxes, a slow change in the direction of orientation of the earth's axis of rotation which results in a gradual westward motion of the equinoxes. For a discussion of this phenomenon, which was known to the ancients, see PRECESSION OF EQUINOXES. The uniform precession of a charged spinning body in a uniform magnetic field is called Larmor precession. This motion is similar to that of a rapidly spinning top and is of great importance in atomic physics. See LARMOR PRECESSION.

**Motion of a spinning top.** Precession is better explained by a discussion of the behavior of a symmetrical spinning top or of any rigid body spinning about an axis of symmetry. Consider a top spinning rapidly about its  $z$  axis of symmetry and placed horizontally on a point support at  $O$  (Fig. 1). The top will not fall as a result of the pull of gravity (its weight  $W$ ) as might be supposed but rather one will observe that the  $z$  axis of the top rotates slowly about the vertical  $y$  axis while maintaining its position in the horizontal  $xz$  plane. This rotation

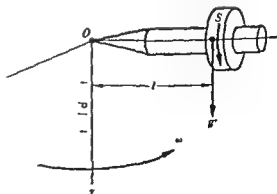


Fig. 1. A fast spinning top pivoted at point  $O$  and released at horizontal position. The precession about the  $y$  axis is shown.

the axis is called precession and the motion can be predicted from the equation

$$M_y = I(H + \omega_p H - \omega_s H) + J(H + \omega_p H - \omega_s H) + k(H + \omega_p H - \omega_s H) \quad (1)$$

where  $M_y$  is the moment or torque about the point  $O$ ,  $H$  is the angular momentum of the top about the vertical axis,  $\omega_p$  is the angular velocity of precession, and  $\omega_s$  is the angular velocity of spin.  $I$ ,  $J$ , and  $k$  are unit vectors along the  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$  axes respectively.  $F$  is the force exerted at the point  $P$  on the top.

Using the principle of conservation of angular momentum, the total angular momentum of the top about the vertical axis is constant. This leads to the equation

$$H = I\omega_p + J\omega_s + k(\omega_p + \omega_s) \quad (1a)$$

where  $I$ ,  $J$ , and  $k$  are the moments of inertia of the top about the  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$  axes respectively. Substituting equation (1) into equation (1a) gives

$$M_y = \{I(\omega_p + \omega_s) + J\omega_s + k(\omega_p + \omega_s)\} \quad (2)$$

For the case where  $\omega_p = \omega_s$  and  $\omega_s$  are negligible compared to the angular velocity of precession, the equation becomes

$$M_y \approx S\omega_p I \quad (3a)$$

$$M_y \approx -S\omega_p I \quad (3b)$$

$$M_y = 0 \quad (3)$$

For the case illustrated in Fig. 1,  $M_y = -Wl$ ,  $M_y = 0$  (no moment due to  $W$  about  $y$ ) and  $M_y = 0$  (no internal torque about  $S = 0$ ).

From Eq. (3a), verified by experiment, the top slowly precesses about the  $y$ -axis with a precessional velocity that is counter-clockwise when observed from above and given by

$$\omega_p = \frac{-Wl}{Is} \quad (\text{a constant}) \quad (4)$$

From Eq. (3b),  $M_y = 0$  as the top maintains its position in the vertical plane. From Eq. (3), one sees that any moment exerted on the spinning body about the  $x$ -axis produces an angular velocity of precession about the  $y$ -axis, and any moment exerted about the  $y$ -axis produces an angular precession about the  $x$ -axis. Such a spinning body is the heart of the gyroscope and its angular momentum  $M$  and  $H$  are called gyroscopic moment.

If the top of Fig. 1 is now placed in the more general position shown in Fig. 2, a similar precession about a fixed vertical axis ( $Z$ ) exists. The gravitational moment will be the same as in Fig. 1. This is more easily seen by considering the angular momentum vector  $H$ . Because  $S$  is very large compared to the angular velocity component of the coordinate system,  $y$  is attached to the precession circle, directed vertically along the spin axis  $z$  and is given by  $H \approx kI_s S$ . From Fig. 2, the moment vector due to gravity is directed normal to the plane of the  $x$  and  $Z$  axes at all times and thus produces a change  $dH$  in time  $dt$  of the angular momentum vector. From Fig. 2,  $dH = H(n\theta)(d\theta/n)$  ( $n =$  unit vector normal to plane  $xZ$ ).  $dH/dt = H \sin\theta (d\theta/dt)n$  and  $M = Wl(n\theta)$ . The equation for a gyroscope is  $M = dH/dt$  becomes  $Wl \sin\theta = H \sin\theta (d\theta/dt)$ . Therefore

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} \approx \frac{Wl}{Is} \quad (5)$$

with precessional velocity.

The quantities  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  at which the axis of the top wobble precesses around  $Z$  with a velocity  $Wl/Is$  and with  $\theta$  the inclination of the top to the vertical, hang together so that Eq. (5) is identical to Eq. (4) and therefore the precession is small, trying to keep the axis of the top nearly vertical. The moments of  $\omega$  are negligible compared to  $S$ .

When the value of  $S$  becomes smaller and longer fulfills the inequality, the general motion of a spinning top is a combination of the general and the resultant motion of precession and angular velocity of the axis of precession. This is the case in the precession of the Earth's axis.

A D MECHANICS)

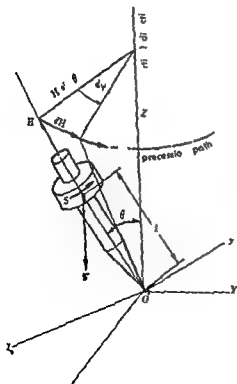


Fig. 2. A top precessing about the vertical  $Z$ -axis.  $\theta$  is the angle of inclination of the top to the vertical.  $W$  is the weight.  $l$  is the distance from the pivot to the center of mass.  $H$  is the angular momentum.  $dH$  is the change in angular momentum.  $Wl$  is the torque.  $\theta$  is the angle of inclination of the top to the vertical.

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Generally the wall is concreted on a casting platform. Only side forms are needed. Sometimes it is advantageous not only for walls but for floor and roof panels as well to cast successive units one on top of the other. A bond breaking agent is applied

to the surface of the casting platform and between successive units.

Inserts usually are cast in the panels to facilitate lifting. The precast units may be lifted with a crane or A frame often equipped with a strong back or frame to distribute the uplift force evenly.

**Lift slab or Youtz Slick method.** In one type of precast construction for buildings popularly known as lift slab but sometimes called Youtz Slick after the developers of the method, floor and roof slabs for a multistory building are cast on the ground around the columns. The slabs are cast one on top of the other with a bond breaking agent between them. Jacks atop the columns lift them to their final position where they are anchored. [F. S. M.]

## Precession

An angular velocity of the axis of spin of a spinning rigid body which arises as a result of external torques acting on the body. Examples are the precession of a spinning top, the earth (precession of the equinoxes), an airplane propeller or gyroscope. Of the most familiar is undoubtedly the precession of the equinoxes, a slow change in the direction of orientation of the earth's axis of rotation which results in a gradual westward motion of the equinoxes. For a discussion of this phenomenon which was known to the ancients, see PRECESSION OF EQUINOXES. The uniform precession of a charged spinning body in a uniform magnetic field is called Larmor precession. This motion is similar to that of a rapidly spinning top and of great importance in atomic physics. See LARMOR PRECESSION.

**Motion of a spinning top.** Precession is better explained by a discussion of the behavior of a symmetrical spinning top or of any rigid body spinning about an axis of symmetry. Consider a top spinning rapidly about its  $z$  axis of symmetry and placed horizontally on a point support at  $O$  (Fig. 1). The top will not fall as a result of the pull of gravity ( $W$ , weight) as might be supposed but rather one will observe that the  $z$  axis of the top rotates slowly about the vertical  $y$  axis while maintaining its position in the horizontal  $xz$  plane. This rotation

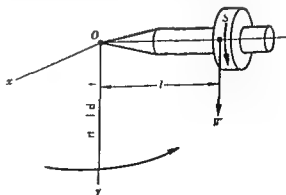


Fig. 1. A fast spinning top supported at point  $O$  on a fixed axis  $y$ . The top's axis of symmetry is  $z$ . The weight  $W$  acts vertically downward from the center of mass.





**Gyroscope motion** A gyroscope consists of a rapidly spinning rigid body with an axis of symmetry. Generally such a body is mounted in a Cardan's suspension (see POINSON'S METHOD) so that its mass center is fixed and it is spinning with a large angular velocity. Equations (3) are valid and (3a) and (3b) can be expressed as a single vector equation

$$\dot{\mathbf{M}} = \frac{1}{I\omega} (\mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{M}) \quad (6)$$

where  $\mathbf{S}$  has a direction along the axis of spin. The precessional angular velocity  $\omega$  of the axis of spin is always at right angles to  $\mathbf{z}$  and  $\mathbf{M}$ . Therefore from Eq (6) the axis of spin always turns toward the resultant moment acting on the gyroscope.

This simple analysis and result shows the stability which a large rotation imparts to a body because under such rotation the body refuses to change the direction of its axis unless large moments are applied. When such moments are applied the resulting displacements due to the precession are obtained according to Eq (6) and are shown in Fig 3. As a result a gyroscope is applicable for stabilizing ships in rolling seas or a monorail car for inertial navigation instruments and is at the heart of the gyrocompass. Furthermore the dynamical analysis of the gyroscope explains how bullets and shells that are spun obtain aerodynamic stability in flight. See BALLISTICS EXTERIOR GYROSCOPE.

**Airplane maneuvers** Rotating masses on aircraft such as propellers, gas turbine rotors, jet engine compressors and the like can exert gyroscopic moments on the airplane during maneuvers.

As an example consider an airplane which is making a sharp turn in a horizontal plane (see Fig

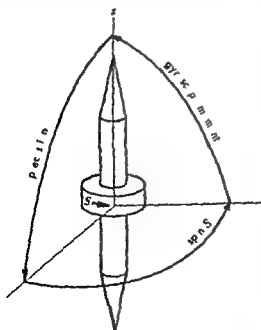


Fig 3 Schematic diagram showing the relation between spin moment and precession of a spinning body

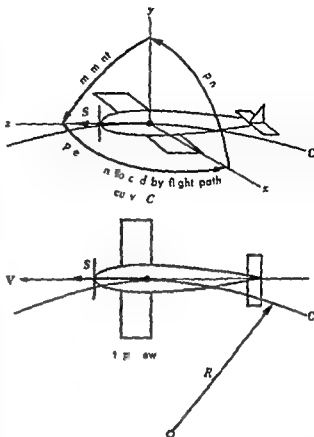


Fig 4 Rotating elements such as turbine rotor or propeller in an airplane follow a curved flight path exert gyroscopic moments as shown

4) As the airplane follows the flight path curve  $C$  it is forcing the rotating parts with spin  $S$  to precess with velocity  $\omega = 1/R$ . From Eq (3) then the airplane must exert a moment  $M = S\omega I$  where  $I$  is the moment of inertia about the axis of rotation of the rotating parts. If the elevators are not set to produce the required moment  $M$ , the nose of the airplane will rise.

All flight paths which involve sharp and rapid turns and loops will be accompanied by gyroscopic moments exerted by the rotating parts, although such moments are usually small as compared with the aerodynamic moments acting. [REBO]

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## Precession of equinoxes

A slow change in the direction of orientation of Earth's axis of rotation which results in a gradual westward motion of the equinoxes. There are two types known as lunisolar precession and planetary precession. The total precession is the sum of the two. The phenomenon of lunisolar precession which is by far the more important was discovered by Hipparchus about 125 B.C. and was first explained by Sir Isaac Newton.

The term equinox has a dual meaning. It refers to (1) either of the two imaginary points at which the ecliptic (the apparent annual path of the Sun among the stars) crosses the celestial equator (the



In analytical chemistry precipitation is widely used to effect the separation of a solid phase in an aqueous solution. For example the addition of a water solution of silver nitrate to a water solution of sodium chloride results in the formation of insoluble silver chloride. Quite often one of the components in the solution is thus virtually completely separated in a relatively pure form. It can then be isolated from the solution phase by filtration or centrifugation and the substance determined by weighing. This procedure is known as gravimetric analysis. Precipitation may also be used merely to effect partial or complete separation of a substance for purposes other than that of gravimetric analysis. Such purposes might involve either the isolation of a relatively pure substance or the removal of undesirable components of the solution.

**Solubility product constant** The extent to which a component can be separated from solution can be determined from the solubility product constant obtained by determining the quantity of dissolved substance present in a known amount of saturated solution. This value is known as the solubility. The solubility can be drastically altered merely by adding to the solution any of the ions comprising the precipitate, as for example the addition of varying quantities of either silver nitrate or sodium chloride to a saturated solution of silver chloride. Although solubility can be altered over a wide range the solubility product itself remains practically constant over this same range.

The solubility product constant can be used to ascertain the quantity of dissolved component remaining unprecipitated in the presence of known concentrations of the ions common to the precipitate. By proper adjustment of the concentration of the added common ion it is possible to reduce the quantity of dissolved component to a negligible value although never to zero. It is an extremely important criterion of a method of gravimetric analysis that the quantity of unprecipitated component be negligible, particularly in comparison with the quantity of precipitate formed. The analytical chemist uses the word quantitative to describe such a chemical reaction. See SOLUBILITY PRODUCT CONSTANT.

**Impurities** The purity of the precipitated solid phase is of major concern both for the preparation of a desired chemical compound and for a quantitative method of gravimetric analysis. It is not possible for a precipitate to be formed as an absolutely pure compound by chemical reaction within the solution phase. Other soluble substances present in the solution, such as the ions not involved in the structure of the precipitate, tend to accompany the solid phase in varying amounts. This phenomenon is known as coprecipitation. The fraction of the total quantity of such foreign ions coprecipitating may be quite small. Although this fraction depends upon experimental variables it is highly dependent upon the relationship between the solubility characteristics of the desired chemical precipitate and

the foreign substance. As a specific example partial precipitation of iodide (as silver iodide) using silver nitrate would coprecipitate (as silver chloride) only a small fraction of any chloride present, whereas it would coprecipitate (as silver bromide) a larger fraction of any bromide present. The iodide is more insoluble than the bromide which is more insoluble than the chloride. Knowledge of the relative solubility characteristics of the chemical species present is thus extremely desirable to the chemist who needs to know whether foreign substances are being collected with the solid or are being left in solution.

A precipitated phase may incorporate foreign ions within its structure in several ways. Best understood of these is isomorphous mixed crystal formation. Radium and barium sulfates form isomorphous mixed crystals because the two compounds have the same crystal structure and the ionic radii of radium and barium are not greatly different. Thus radium and barium ions are interchangeable within the crystal lattice to a considerable degree. Silver bromide and silver chloride will also form isomorphous mixed crystals. Because of the ease with which interchange can take place within the crystal lattice isomorphous mixed crystal systems should be avoided if a good separation of the two different ionic species is desired. On the other hand the property of isomorphism may also be put to good use in concentrating minute traces. For example barium sulfate precipitated in the presence of minute traces of radium will carry with it almost all of the radium. Such procedure are frequently used in the collection of minute traces of radioactive species.

An ion present at high dilution may be incorporated apparently by mixed crystal formation even though such formation would not be predicted on the basis of crystallography and ionic radii. An example of this is the coprecipitation of traces of lead with potassium chloride. This phenomenon is known as anomalous mixed crystal formation or isomorphism.

When foreign ion incorporation cannot be ascribed to isomorphism coprecipitation may occur by adsorption. Residual charges at the surface of a precipitate attract charged ions in the solution. The adsorption process results in a greater concentration of foreign ions near the precipitate surface than exists in the main body of the solution. Adsorbed foreign ions may remain quite firmly attached to the solid. In fact they may be considered as succeeding layers of the crystal are deposited and cause imperfections within it. This latter phenomenon is known as occlusion although it arises as a result of adsorption. The term occlusion should be distinguished from inclusion which refers to the mechanical trapping of the liquid (and liquid in it) within the precipitate.

Sometimes one substance in a mixture precipitates rapidly but a second foreign substance which precipitates slowly as a second solid phase. This is not generally considered to be coprecipitation.

referred to as polypropylene. The polypropylene of zinc sulfide with copper sulfide is given as example

Methods for reducing contamination In an effort to reduce contamination by foreign nations the health authorities various techniques Precipitation of dissolved solids is often effective Heating the residuals so that a digesting tank is used in the liquid phase speeds recrystallization process by heating porous feed foreign may be returned to the solid phase Precipitation in homogeneous systems, a technique which the desired precipitating agent is mixed internally with the solids by chemical synthesis results in the formation of the crystalline small surface area, decrease coprecipitation

If all these method fail to reduce adequately the quantity of foreign ions incorporated in the polymer then precipitation is applied. The precipitate is dissolved and reprecipitated by the major solvent system. The major solvent will emanate from the process for precipitation must be repeated until the quantity of foreign ions present in the precipitate be reduced to  $5 \times 10^{-4}$  or less. Crystallization, Electrodeposition, Analysis Gravimetric, X-ray Diffraction, X-ray Crystallography, Acceleration Saturation of Solvent to  $5 \times 10^{-4}$  Paraffin (Chemical and Physical) [L.C.]

### Precipitation (meteorology)

The fall of water in frozen particles from  
 the atmosphere. Liquid types are rain, drizzle, and  
 frozen types are snow, sleet, and hail (also  
 called graupel). In the United States, sleet  
 is pellets of supercooled liquid water  
 that freeze on contact with surfaces. Snow  
 is made of ice crystals that fall and  
 melt before reaching the ground. Sleet  
 is frozen raindrops that freeze in the air.  
 Precipitation is any form of water that  
 falls from the sky. It can be liquid or  
 solid. The amount of precipitation is  
 measured in inches or millimeters. The  
 amount of snow is measured in inches or  
 centimeters. The amount of sleet is  
 measured in inches or millimeters. The  
 amount of hail is measured in inches or  
 centimeters. The amount of rain is  
 measured in inches or millimeters. The  
 amount of drizzle is measured in inches  
 or millimeters. The amount of snow  
 is measured in inches or centimeters.

W t p e p t a t p r t i o n n i t e  
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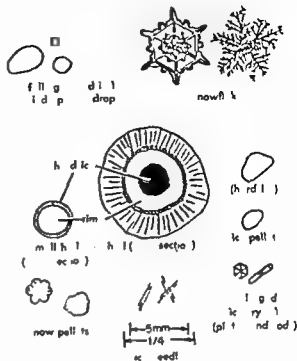


Fig. 1. Volume fraction of precipitate.

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w l l abo the freezing level. P d p ar rarely  
l g r th 5 mm m d m ter be a l g r e  
tend to be k p

The miller's wife said to her husband, "I have been thinking about you very much today." The miller said to his wife, "I have been thinking about you very much today."

apart	0.27	2.56	4.03	6.43	9.06	2.23
Diameter	0.1	0.5	1.0	2.0	3.0	4.0

Frozen precipitation. Can will keep air br ched.  
 x p ar r r ry tal str gnl f rms u h a m v  
 r d n rles mf tuon f both strn they  
 r n r d t f r me Th p ed f falling flakes

variable it is greater when the flakes are rimed and is mostly 1-2 meters/sec. See SNOW

Hail mostly seen in thunderstorms forms with the aid of warm moist air when clouds build to great heights. Hailstones usually have concentric

layers of rime and hard ice typically 1 cm in diameter but ranging up to more than 10 cm. See HAIL

Ice pellets are of hard ice either clear or opaque and may be spherical or irregular. The

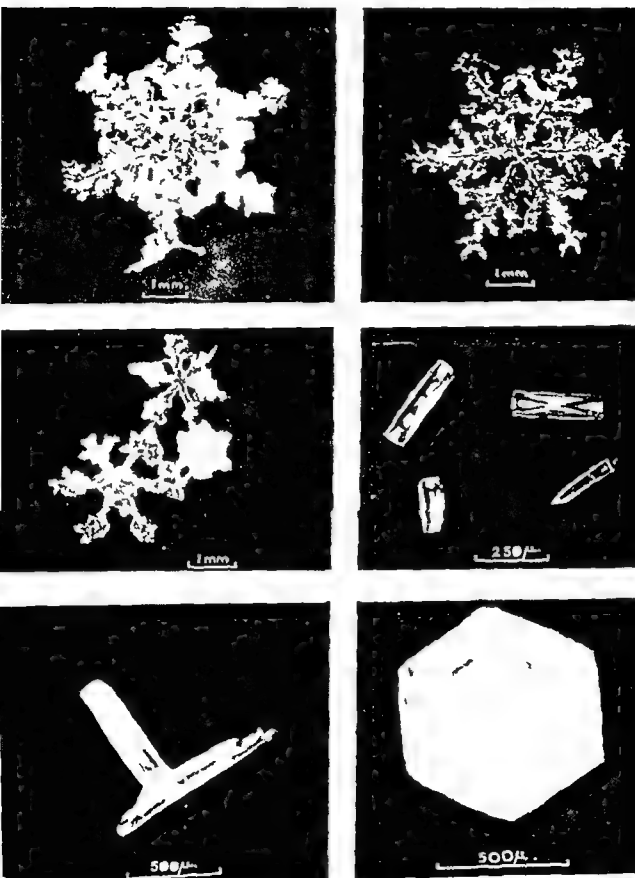
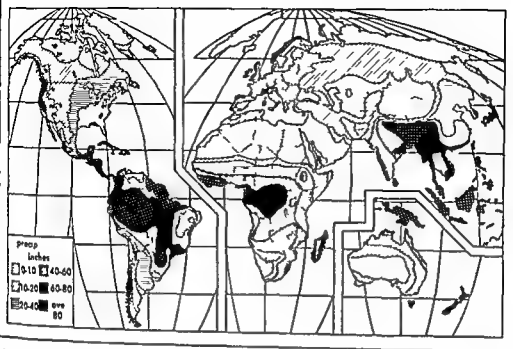


Fig. 2. Photographs of snow and ice crystals: (a) & (b) Snow flakes; (c) Snow flake and snow pellet; (d) Rods;

(e) left: Ice needles; (e) right: Plate. (f) J. Marshall Snow Crystal Collection, Oct. 1962.



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formed by the freezing of rain or drizzle. The  
no pellets are of irregular shape. They  
formed from times with small particles and often  
ded with a few big round bed crystals.  
cold more 25 mm. They fall usually  
they are, sometimes even when ground temperature  
is a few degrees above freezing. U Nakaya  
and the Pacific try to be about 0.12°C  
more similar but smaller and flatter with dis-  
tinct small amounts. They fall generally in  
small amounts from stratocumulus fog  
and reds are narrow pointed crystals so glibly  
small and about 1 mm in diameter which  
glide or flutter smoothly to the ground.  
little below freezing.

crystals are in droplets. They fall in  
tablets that often show the cloud and  
might they still the ground.  
geographical distribution. The point to is part  
of the hydrologic cycle the center of the change  
between a liquid and a solid atmosphere but its  
distribution on the earth is uneven (F 3)

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W. B. E. M.)

recapitation and weather. Precipitation is  
the cycle of the tropical and temperate  
types of precipitation are different (we the  
tropical types are more frequent and warm  
cold front cold weather lifting

warmer in one case caused by local uplift. In  
mountain convergence generally the cold air is  
by convergence to low level and the warm air is  
air forced upward. Mountain slope. Any type  
mountain slope however convection is necessary  
may occur with the type Lake Wales when  
air at first is cold. The Florida lakes  
lakes has the Great Lakes. Minor causes of pre-  
cipitation are the local lifting (air mass  
lifting and advection) and night meteorological  
formation but the yield small.

Condensation in the atmosphere. Basically the  
equilibrium of air is cooled and below the dew  
point. Then the water droplets form by o-  
desaturation or crystal form by sublimation.  
The droplets or crystals are cloud particles  
from which by a growth mechanism the larger pre-  
cipitation particles may form. The only cooling  
processes sufficient to make appreciable pre-  
cipitation is adiabatic expansion which occurs as a  
rising air mass lowers its pressure. See ATMOSPHERIC  
ADIABATIC CHANGE. The rate of condensation in-  
creasing as the air mass approaches the surface and  
is directly proportional to the speed of ascent.  
The rate of condensation is proportional to the  
precipitation rate. CLOUD PHYSICS WEATHER MODI-  
FICATION

For discussion of other topics related to pre-  
cipitation see DEW DEW POINT FOG HUMIDITY  
HYDROLOGY RAIN SHADOW VAPOR PRESSURE

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of Meteorology 1951. S. P. T. S. N. W. Th. F. L.  
ysis of F. C. T. G. V. 12 d. W. Th. F. L.  
W. Th. S. y. T. m. 1956

## Precipitation gages

Instruments used to measure the amount of rainfall or snowfall expressed as inches or centimeters depth of water which falls on a level surface. When precipitation gages are equipped with a recorder the time of occurrence and the rate or intensity are available as well. Other forms of precipitation such as dew, frost and moisture absorbed by the soil are also of considerable interest but they are not measured by the precipitation gages routinely used by the meteorological services.

**General design features.** The gage is basically an open container and funnel constructed to minimize any splashing out and mounted 1-3 ft above the surface to prevent splashing into the container yet not so high that its catch is affected by the wind which normally increases in velocity with height. From the volume of water collected and the area of the opening the depth of water is easily obtained. Various schemes are used to obtain the water volume. The U.S. Weather Bureau calibrates the catch in a cylinder whose area is one tenth that

of the gage area. The depth is measured by a dipstick calibrated in inches. Gages used in other countries have bottles, graduated cylinders or other arrangements for obtaining the volume of the catch. The funnel in each of the  $\pi$  gages reduces water loss by evaporation.

**Recording instruments.** A continuous type of recording rain gage uses a spring balance to record on a clock-driven chart the weight of the precipitation collected. High sensitivity is obtained by using a slotted linkage so that large amounts of rainfall cause the recorder pen to travel back and forth several times across the chart. Another type of recording gage uses a shallow V-shaped two-compartment tipping bucket pivoted at the vertex so that it has two stable positions. The vertical partition lies just below the opening in the funnel and directs the flow into the other position where the second compartment fills while the first empties into a container. Each tip of the bucket corresponds to 0.01 in. of rainfall and closes an electrical contact to actuate a remote register. Still other types of gage use a float to actuate the recording pen. Some of these have an automatic siphon to empty the float chamber when a specific amount of rainfall (0.02 in.) is collected.

**Gaging snowfall.** When a suitable wind screen is used, snowfall can be measured by melting the snow collected in a rain gage (the funnel must be removed). Fallen snow is also measured by taking sample cores. A device for measuring the mass of snowfall uses a cobalt 60  $\gamma$  ray source at ground level collimated toward a Geiger counter mounted several feet above the surface. As snow covers the surface the reduction in counting rate as a result of  $\gamma$  ray absorption by the snow is used to determine the mass of snow in the column. An attractive feature of the device is that the counts are easily telemetered by radio, making it very useful for mountainous regions. See SNOW GAGE, SNOW SURVEYING. [F.S.]

**Bibliography.** F. A. Berry Jr. et al. (eds.), *Handbook of Meteorology*, 1945. W. E. K. Middleton, *Meteorological Instruments*, 3d ed., 1953.

## Precipitin

A term used in serology to describe an antibody that reacts with its corresponding antigen to give a visible precipitate. Since precipitation reactions are given by some purified antibody solutions that also give agglutination and other serological reactions, this is purely an operational definition. Incomplete antibodies are also known that do not precipitate with soluble antigens although they will agglutinate and otherwise add on to particulate antigens. Evidence for their occurrence together with precipitating antibody can be obtained for most sera. Precipitins may be quantitated by noting the endpoint dilution (titer) of serum required to give a precipitate at the threshold of visibility or the amount of antibody may be determined in milligrams or micrograms by appropriate analysis of the precipitate with correction for the antigen contained

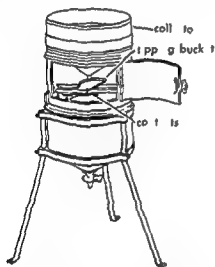


Fig 1 Fergusson weighing and recording type of gage (From F. A. Berry Jr. et al. (eds.), *Handbook of Meteorology*, McGraw-Hill, 1945).

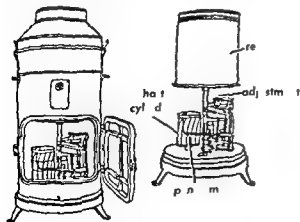


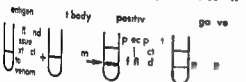
Fig 2 A tipping bucket gage (From F. A. Berry Jr. et al. (eds.), *Handbook of Meteorology*, McGraw-Hill, 1945).

See ANTIBODY ANTIGEN PRECIPITIN TEST [HPT]  
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# Precipitin test

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# Precision approach radar (PAR)

A radar y tem located on a a i r f l d f r o l r v a  
 n n of th p o t i n f a n a i r a s t w i t h r e p e t t  
 a a p p r a h p a t h and p a s s i c a l l y t e n d e d t o p r o  
 v i d e g d a n e t h a i r c r a f t d u r i n g i t a p p r h

The PAR s y s t e m c n s i t f a g d r a d a r  
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 d c e s f r m a t n o n t h e l a s t n o f t h a i r c r a f t  
 i n t r m o f a n g l a d d a t a c n t h e t w o w p  
 g e t h e t h r e e - d i m e n s i o n a l l a t i n f t h e a i r c r f t  
 ( F g 1 )

T l t i n t h n e e a y d c r i m i n t i n t h e a n  
 t n a s t m m t p r o d c e x t e m l y n a r r w  
 b e a m w d t h. F a r t h r n c e i t s n c e s r y t l  
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 4 m / e c ). T h e d e s i r e d p f r m a e s l t a i e d  
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 85 f t. T h e r e s l t i n g b m w d t h f r t h a n t n a  
 e e p n g i t h e h i n t l p l n i s a h e i g h t f  
 a b o u t 15 n d w d t h f 0 f. T h e n t n w e e p  
 i n g i t h r t i c l p l n e h a s a w d t h f a p p r o x i  
 m t e l y 30 and a h g h t f 0 f ( F g 2 ).  
 R a p d w e e p i n g i s a m p l h e d t y c h a n g i g s i  
 p h a n g f t h e e n e r g y f e d t t h d p l e. T h i  
 p h e h m s c m p l i e d b y a y i g t h d  
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 A s p e c t a t n f t h e d t a f o m t h P A R  
 h b e n p o d u c e d. O n f t h i m p l t p r e n t a  
 t n e m p l y t w c t h d e r y l l p. O n e  
 f t h e s e p r n t s z i m u t h s s d t a c t h



F g 1 G d w t h p p p h d  
 ( F m P C S d t t E l c t A g l E g  
 g l t i t I t l p h d t l g p h C p  
 1958 )



## Precipitation gages

Instruments used to measure the amount of rainfall or snowfall expressed as inches or centimeters depth of water which falls on a level surface. When precipitation gages are equipped with a recorder the time of occurrence and the rate or intensity are available as well. Other forms of precipitation such as dew, frost and moisture absorbed by the soil are also of considerable interest but they are not measured by the precipitation gages routinely used by the meteorological services.

**General design features.** The gage is basically an open container and funnel constructed to minimize any splashing out and mounted 1-3 ft above the surface to prevent splashing into the container yet not so high that its catch is affected by the wind which normally increases in velocity with height. From the volume of water collected and the area of the opening the depth of water is easily obtained. Various schemes are used to obtain the water volume. The U.S. Weather Bureau calibrates the catch in a cylinder whose area is one tenth that

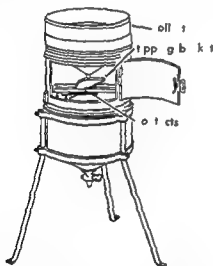


Fig. 1 Ferguson weighing and recording type of gage (From F. A. Berry Jr., E. B. Illay and N. R. Bee's eds. *Handbook of Meteorology*, McGraw-Hill, 1945).

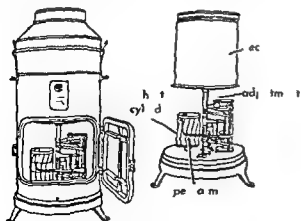


Fig. 2 Tipping bucket gage (From F. A. Berry Jr., E. B. Illay and N. R. Bee's eds. *Handbook of Meteorology*, McGraw-Hill, 1945).

of the gage area. The depth is measured by a dip stick calibrated in inches. Gages used in other countries have bottles graduated cylinder or other arrangements for obtaining the volume of the catch. The funnel in each of the gages reduces water loss by evaporation.

**Recording instruments.** A continuous type of recording rain gage uses a spring balance to record on a clock-driven chart the weight of the precipitation collected. High intensity is obtained by using a slotted linkage so that large amounts of rainfall cause the recorder pen to travel back and forth several times across the chart. Another type of recording gage uses a shallow V-shaped two-compartment tipping bucket pivoted at the vertex so that it has two stable positions. The vertical partition lies just below the opening in the funnel and directs the flow into the other position where the second compartment fills while the first empties into a container. Each tip of the bucket corresponds to 0.01 in. of rainfall and closes an electrical contact to actuate a remote register. Still other types of gages use a float to actuate the recording pen. Some of these have an automatic siphon to empty the float chamber when a specific amount of rainfall (0.02 in.) is collected.

**Gaging snowfall.** When a suitable wind screen is used snowfall can be measured by melting the snow collected in a rain gage (the funnel must be removed). Fallen snow is also measured by taking sample cores. A device for measuring the mass of snowfall uses a cobalt 60 gamma source at ground level collimated toward a Geiger counter mounted several feet above the surface. A snow cover the surface the reduction in counting rate as a result of gamma absorption by the snow is used to determine the mass of snow in the column. An attractive feature of the device is that the count are easily telemetered by radio making it very useful for mountainous regions. See SNOW GAGE, SNOW SURVEYING. [VES]

**Bibliography.** F. A. Berry Jr. et al. (eds.) *Handbook of Meteorology*, 1945. W. E. K. Middleton. *Meteorological Instruments*, 3d ed., 1953.

## Precipitin

A term used in serology to describe an antibody that reacts with its corresponding antigen to give a visible precipitate. Since precipitation reactions are given by some purified antibody solutions that also give agglutination and other serological reactions this is purely an operational definition. Incomplete antibodies are also known that do not precipitate with soluble antigens although they will agglutinate and otherwise add on to particulate antigen and evidence for their occurrence together with precipitating antibody can be obtained for months. Precipitins may be quantitated by noting the endpoint dilution (titer) of serum required to give a precipitate at the threshold of visibility or the amount of antibody may be determined in milligram or microgram by appropriate analysis of the precipitate with correction for the antigen contained

base of the uterus lies just beneath the anterior

Change in the breasts begins early in pregnancy, the enlargement and tenderness being common preliminary changes. The nipples and areolae increase in size and deepen in pigmentation retaining the premenstrual color of the glandular element of the breast. A watery or lightly turbid discharge called colostrum may be expressed from the nipples especially in women who have had previous pregnancies.

Changes in the vagina and cervix accom-  
pany the progression of pregnancy, the  
renal function also considerably in-  
creased. The blood and urine as well as the  
female constituents of blood and tissue all reflect  
the physiological changes required for  
the process.

Ectopic and multiple pregnancy Ect p c preg  
1 year. In the fertilized ovum bec me in  
shaded n t e other than the m dom t m of  
t r us. Th s id to h ppen in about 1 out  
fer r 300 p n nci and mo t ith eab rr m  
mple nt n s f u d in the F ll pian t bes  
d t tes f impla tat on re the o s tes and th  
W ale r s

Multiple pregnancy includes the simultaneous u-  
terine development of two or more fetuses. Twin oc-  
curs in 90 pregnancies; triplet occurrence is 10  
per 100,000; and quadruplets are extremely rare.

**Termination of pregnancy** Pregnancy may proceed term or may be concluded by natural abortion as pathologic or normal delivery. The term abortion is used to designate the passage of a fetus weighing less than 1000 grams at the twenty-eighth week of pregnancy. This may occur spontaneously as a result of failure of many causes but unfortunately it also frequently occurs as the result of induced abortion.

7 p n n e y i s t e r m i d f i e r t h n n y  
 8 n e k a d b e f r e t h e e d f n m a l p r g  
 9 y p m i e n t i s h o n P r e m a t l h r  
 10 n l f l l t e s i f i n m l t p r g  
 11 n e r p m i e r u p t u e o f t h e i c t a l m l r a n s  
 12 d h r p e c i f i c n d n s p e r t h e e n t a A b u t  
 13 f l l p e g n n c s n d i p m t u l a b r  
 14 f i n t m i l t y d e r a s e w i t h t h e l g t h o f  
 15 g n e y a d t h i z e l t h f s

280 days f mth beg n g f  
 269 days f m the  
 300  
 (E C S T)

### Pregnancy disorders of

Th lat e' mm n n n npl nia f n us a  
mi g. fat gu d tipat n a d is the  
me ru d rd m nt dbe

Pernicious vomiting is usually found early in pregnancy. Its cause is unknown but appropriate treatment is usually successful.

Th e r r m s f p r e g n a c y a r e a g r u p i d e a c f u n d i n t h e l a t t r u m e r o f f o l l o w i n g d e l i e r y T h e y a r e c h a r a c t e r i z e d b y h y p e r t e n s i o n a l b u m i n u r i a a n d e d e m a T h e r e s u l t i o n a n d c o m p l i c a t i o n o f e c l a m p s i s m a y e n v e s t r a t m e n t i s d e l a y e d

Chronic hypertension is a heart disease and chronic kidney disease are preexisting conditions which produce high percentage of complications during a delivery after pregnancy.

Am = the infant dies = tubercular; and  
syphilis present hazard to them; and the un-  
born infant although formerly a free d. killer  
childbirth ( = puerperal sep. ) a tript. cal-  
caneum has largely been eliminated in modern  
facilities; it will exist in backward areas. See  
STREPTOCOCCI SYPHILIS TUBERCULOSIS

Hemolytic disease of the newborn (HDN) is a condition that occurs when a mother's blood and a fetus's blood mix in the placenta or during delivery. This can happen if the mother has Rh-negative blood and the fetus has Rh-positive blood. The mother's immune system may attack the fetus's red blood cells, leading to anemia and jaundice.

hemorrhage in pregnancy may be due to many causes but the most common is placental abruption. The common cause of fetal prematurity is premature separation of the placenta from the fetus.

[illegible]

It is estimated that of every 100 fertilized ova, only 70 will develop into term infants. Of the remaining 30, 15 will be born with implantation anomalies, one third of which result in abnormal embryos which are aborted and the remainder lost by spontaneous abortion for other causes. See FERTILIZATION (p. 68).

## Prehnite

A m n l i at omp it on C A l S O  
(OH) , tall z n the rth rhombic sy tem  
D t t crystal a are a d it occur u ally n  
e f rm nd t l t e ggreg t s w th cry t l lne  
r f H da i 6-64 Moh ale pe 6c  
g a t s 98-29 It h s a e luster w th a  
lght gent white o l s r Fr h n te is ch s a t  
t lly f u d l n ng the ca t n b salt r ks

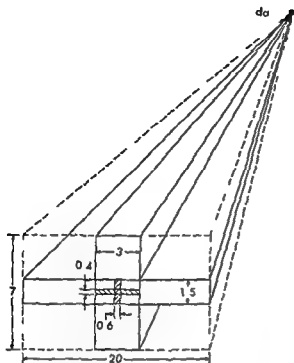


Fig 2 Field pattern of the antennas of the radar low-approach system. The dimensions shown are all in degrees. The broken line indicates the total movement of the field pattern. The cross-hatched areas represent the dimensions of the field patterns from the antennas when they are not sweeping.

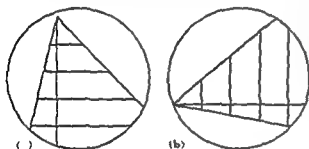


Fig 3 Simple display of a low-approach radar. (a) Azimuth distance. (b) Elevation distance.

other elevation versus distance (see Fig 3). The operator positions transparent plastic scales over the spots representing the target. Attached to the scales are cam mechanisms that rotate voltage dividers. The cams are cut with curves that correspond to the localizer and glide-slope positions that an aircraft should follow in making an optimum approach. With an aircraft making an optimum approach, the cams always position the arm on the voltage divider so that the output is zero. Deviation above or below or to the right or the left of the optimum path produces a positive or negative output voltage. This voltage is connected to a cro's pointer instrument such as that used with ILS. See INSTRUMENT LANDING SYSTEM (ILS).

Probably the most elaborate PAR presentation is that known as the AZ-EL scope. On this oscilloscope presentation all information is generated electronically. The upper half of the oscilloscope

is devoted to the presentation of glide slope (vertical position) indication and the lower half of the scope is devoted to azimuth (localizer) indication. The optimum paths in the horizontal and vertical planes are indicated by electronically generated lines. Distance is displayed logarithmically: that about half of the scale shows a distance equivalent to 3 miles while the remaining half is equal to about 7 miles.

It is not necessary to have specific airborne equipment in order to utilize the PAR system, although such equipment has been used experimentally. In common practice the ground PAR operators call instructions to the pilot indicating the relative position of the aircraft with respect to the optimum approach path or give the pilot maneuvering instructions that will bring the aircraft to the approach path. See AIRCRAFT LOW APPROACH SYSTEMS, NAVIGATION SYSTEMS, ELECTRONIC (FCS).

*Bibliography: P. C. Sandretto, Electronic Aviation Engineering, 1958.*

## Pregnancy

In humans the period of about 280 days required for the normal intrauterine development of a child. Fertilization or conception occurs if shortly after ovulation a male sperm penetrates the ovum. Ovulation is usually midway between menstrual periods. The ovum passes into the Fallopian tube and then into the uterus. Most fertilization is believed to occur in the tube within a day or so of ovulation. If the fertilized ovum does not proceed into the uterus, one form of ectopic or displaced pregnancy may occur. See FERTILIZATION, OVUM, SPERM CELL.

Under normal conditions the fertilized ovum will pass into the uterine cavity and become implanted in the lining or mucosa called the endometrium. This highly vascular tissue, which usually responds to the cyclic regulation of female hormones, now gradually comes under the influence of the gestational or placental hormones. The embryo tends to maintain the mucosa instead of allowing it to be sloughed off periodically. In addition, they directly and indirectly exert influences on the entire endocrine system so that almost every tissue and organ of the body is affected. See PLACENTATION.

As the embryo develops, rapid differentiation of germ layers into organs and systems occurs, accompanied by a corresponding growth in the size of the embryo and of the supporting placenta.

**Maternal changes.** Changes in the mother are most marked in the reproductive organs, including the uterus itself. A slight enlargement and softening of the uterus may be detectable on examination by the end of the second month. A further enlargement occurs the muscular wall becomes hypertrophied and then stretched so that it is soft and somewhat flexible. During the fourth month the uterus ordinarily rises above the pelvis and becomes abdominal. By the end of pregnancy the upper

# Pressure measurement

The determination of the magnitude of a (fluid) force per unit area

Pressure measurements are generally classified as absolute pressure, gauge pressure, the difference between a gauge pressure and the pressure of the atmosphere. Absolute pressure is the total pressure including that of the atmosphere. Atmospheric pressure was the first pressure that was really measured; it remains a simple third category pressure in the atmosphere. Pressure is called vacuum (see VACUUM MEASUREMENT).

The table compares eight common units of pressure measurement. To avoid confusion, absolute pressure is often referred to as absolute pressure (100 pound per square inch gauge pressure (100 psi)). All other pressures are inch absolute pressure (100 psi).

The barometric pressure is an important measurement. The pressure level has a significant effect on most physical chemical and biological processes.

Indirect pressure measurement is the process of determining pressure indirectly. The main principle is to use a fluid to guide the pressure. The fluid is pumped into a pipe or tube. The fluid is then used to measure the pressure. The fluid is then used to measure the pressure. The fluid is then used to measure the pressure.

Pressure is usually measured in the following units: absolute pressure, gauge pressure, the difference between a gauge pressure and the pressure of the atmosphere. Absolute pressure is the total pressure including that of the atmosphere. Atmospheric pressure was the first pressure that was really measured; it remains a simple third category pressure in the atmosphere. Pressure is called vacuum (see VACUUM MEASUREMENT).

The liquid-column gage. This type of pressure gage is used to measure the pressure of a liquid. The liquid is pumped into a pipe or tube. The liquid is then used to measure the pressure. The liquid is then used to measure the pressure. The liquid is then used to measure the pressure.

## Pressure equivalents

	mm	kg/m	psi	Hg	H <sub>2</sub> O	mm Hg	mb	μ Hg
Atmospheres	1	1.033	14.70	29.9	106.8	760	1013	
Kilogram per square centimeter	0.9806	1	14.22	8.96	393.7	73.6	980.7	
Pound per square inch	0.0680	0.0703	1	2.036	27.68	51.71	68.9	
Inches of water	0.0334	0.0345	0.491	1	13.60	25.40	33.86	
Millimeters of mercury	0.0013	0.00136	0.0193	0.0736	1	1.868	2.486	
Millibars		0.0010	0.0145	0.0391	0.53	1	1.333	1000
Microbars				0.0095	0.401	0.750	1	70.1
						0.001	0.00133	1

At 32°F (0°C) to convert to H<sub>2</sub>O at 60°F multiply by 1.0083

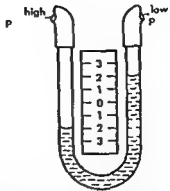


Fig 1 Liquid column gage (U-tube manometer)

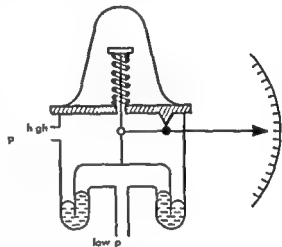


Fig 2 Bell-type gage

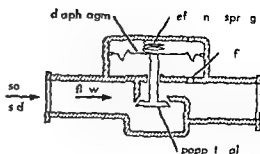
Bell-type gage. The bell is a hollow sphere that is partially immersed in a liquid. The liquid is pumped into a pipe or tube. The liquid is then used to measure the pressure. The liquid is then used to measure the pressure. The liquid is then used to measure the pressure.

The bell-type gage can be employed to measure the difference between two known pressures. The difference between the two pressures is measured by the difference in the liquid level in the two tubes.

pectolite. Noted localities in the United States are at Patterson and Bergen Hill, New Jersey; Westfield, Massachusetts; and Farmington, Connecticut. See SILICATE MINERALS [CSHU]

## Press fit

A press fit has negative allowance that is the bore in the fitted member is smaller than the shaft which is pressed into the bore. Tight fits have slight negative allowance so that light pressure is required to assemble the parts; they are used for gears, pulleys, cranks, and rocker arms. Medium force fits have somewhat greater negative allowance and require considerable pressure for assembly; they are used for fastening locomotive wheels, car wheels, and motor armatures. See ALLOWANCE. FORCE FIT. SHRINK FIT [PHB]



Pressure regulating valve

convert the reading into some readily usable form such as force, torque, rotation, displacement, electric voltage, or current. Once converted into a usable form, the signal is processed in a controller and applied to an actuator which varies the pressure adjusting mechanism.

Pressure control systems have many possible forms. A common mechanical form is the reducing or regulating valve which combines the functions of the pressure transducer, controller, and actuator. The simple device shown in the figure. The controlled pressure on the downstream side is adjusted by opening or closing a poppet valve which throttles the flow of fluid. As the valve is adjusted, the controlled pressure falls or rises. The poppet valve may be regarded as the actuator in a feedback control system.

The reference input is the force created by the compression of the spring. This force is compared to the force created by the pressure on the diaphragm, and if an unbalance exists, it will open or shut the valve depending on whether the pressure force is lower or higher than the spring force. As in all feedback control systems, the possibility of self-induced oscillation exists. This would occur if changes in valve area were too large for the error in pressure. Oscillation is prevented by restricting the feedback passage. An orifice in combination with the volume of the diaphragm cavity acts as a low-pass, low-gain element. This element performs the functions of a controller in preventing oscillation and producing satisfactory performance in the presence of disturbances.

The automatic pressure control system illustrated in this example is a simple one in which the various functions of pressure sensing, error computation, controlling, and actuation are carried out in a compact device. Simpler devices such as pressure relief valves which exhaust fluid into the atmosphere or overflow sump, or more complex systems using pressure transducer, conventional pneumatic or electric controller, and separate actuators are also used depending on the application.

The basic theory which describes the performance and design of pressure control systems is identical to that of any dynamical feedback control system. Consideration of stability, steady-state accuracy, sensitivity to extraneous variations such as temperature and supply pressure, and response to random fluctuations are important. See CONTROL SYSTEM, PROCESS CONTROL. [JHR]

## Pressure

The ratio of force to area. The force per unit area at the interior of the Sun is estimated to be  $3 \times 10^{10}$  dyne/cm<sup>2</sup>. In interstellar space pressure approaches zero. Atmospheric pressure at the surface of Earth is in the vicinity of 14 lb/in<sup>2</sup>. Pressures in enclosed containers less than this value are spoken of as vacuum pressures; for example, the vacuum pressure inside a cathode ray tube is 10<sup>-6</sup> mm of Hg, meaning that the pressure is equal to the pressure that would be produced by a column of mercury with no force acting above it that is 10<sup>-6</sup> millimeters high. This is absolute pressure measured above zero pressure as a reference level. Inside a steam boiler the pressure may be 800 lb/in<sup>2</sup> or higher. Such pressure measured above atmospheric pressure as a reference level is gage pressure, designated psig. See MILLIBAR. [FHR]

## Pressure control automatic

A form of feedback control system in which the controlled variable is the magnitude of the pressure of a fluid. In many chemical and petrochemical processes, maintenance of a pressure or vacuum is an important condition to successful operation. Pressure control is used not only to obtain a satisfactory reaction but also to obtain constant flow through a control valve or constriction when the main pressure source is variable. The configuration of a pressure control system is a closed-loop that is the controlled pressure is measured and compared to some reference or set point. The difference between the set point and the actual pressure reading causes an actuator to open a valve. The valve admits more or less fluid, thereby increasing or decreasing the pressure at the point of measurement until a balance is reached. Some of the more complex systems adjust pressure by varying the speed of a pump or by decreasing pumping efficiency, but most use throttling method. The same general principles which apply to the design and performance of all dynamical feedback control systems apply to pressure control systems.

The automatic pressure control systems require pressure transducers that measure the pressure and

### Pressure transducer

A instrument component which detects a fluid pressure and produces a electrical signal related to the pressure. See TRANSDUCER.

**Large earal**, the complete instrument system comprising a speaking element such as a boud tube bell or diaphragm element, a detector, a horn or ear trumpet, and a force produced by the semi-conductor to a change of an electric potential and an indicating or recording instrument. The instrument is used in an automatic loop system to a desired pressure.

Electricity measurement of pressure may be performed by mechanical or pneumatic measurement of a number of factors (1) Electricity permits transmission of signal over longer distances (2) Sometimes electricity permits more accurate temperature measurement (3) It is usually easier to install than electrical signal (4) Electricity allows more fully or functionally most common

Piezotransducers may be classified by the piezoelectric principle or by the transduction strain gauge magnet transducer crystal transducer

Resistive pressure transducers are used by these transducers by element that changes its electrical resistance as a function of pressure.

[illegible]

element my b curved part  
ne in m g angular mo-

Fig 1 h w n typ of t e press re  
tr d r A b llows oppo ed by p ely de  
med p i s s th p e ur d erts the  
p e t h a m u n f th plat h tween  
th bell d the pti g Th pl te bea c

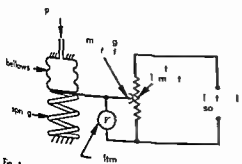


Fig 1 R 1 P 1 d

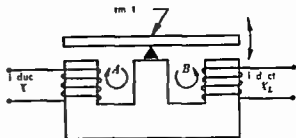


Fig 2 R l c t a t y p e s t d c

tact which wipes the surface of the precision wire  
wound resistor. If a constant potential (ac or dc)  
is maintained across the resistor and if the resist-  
ance of the kilometer high with respect to the  
resistor the measured voltage is a precise measure  
of the pre-use instrument of this type are avail-  
able with range low 0-5 p.p.s. per sq. re-  
inch (p.i.) and a high 0-10,000 p.p.s. Accuracy  
full scale attainable

The carbon pile may be considered to be an alternative form of resistance pressure transducer. The simplest form is the carbon microphone consisting of a box of carbon particles covered with a diaphragm. Varying pressure on the diaphragm varies the contact area of the carbon particles hence the electrical resistance across the box. The basic microphone is used only for dynamic measurements (high speed) and has calibrated accuracy. A modified form using a stack of processed disks in place of the carbon particles is much more stable. See MICROPHONE.

Pres is re sen si e wi i set an ther w y of  
m ring p e ur When fl d pre re is appld  
to a w e the w re i m p e d a d th r i ce  
rea e Gold ch m m d manganin wire r  
o d arily ed he a m they h e un ally low  
temp ture fficients f res: ta e Pres ures  
high as 200 000 p s an be measured with th se  
tra duce

**Strain gage pressure transducers** The electromotive force might be considered to be rather small transducers but are usually classified separately.

Stagg presented a dicer coetaph:  
 I'd place in it a electrical signal by use of  
 the fact that when a wire stretched to diameter  
 I'd create and let it all release.

ed Th hang n e t e me s e of  
the d spl ment h f the p ue It d  
ant g l de f to re l ti d mall e  
Th t g g u ally ed i Wheat t ne  
typ b idge at F am = omplet d cu n  
S R 14 G 5E

Magnetic pressure transducers. The type of pressure transducer used to change of magnetic induction with no part of magnetic circuit is made by pre-galvanizing the bellows with a phosphor magnetic transducer material.

R l t a c t y p e p s s r e t s d c r T h i t y p  
p d c e s t a m g n t c c r e i t a h n g e f m e

sure tight bearing or seal. The accuracy of a bell type gage is about 1% of full scale.

**Expansible metallic element gages** These are in wide use throughout industry due to their low cost and freedom from the operational limitations of liquid gages.

There are three classes: bourdon diaphragm and bellows. All forms—as single elements—are affected by variations in external (atmospheric) pressure and hence are generally used as gage elements. Accuracies vary from 0.1–2.0% of full scale depending on material design and precision of components.

These elements may be designed to produce either motion or force under applied pressure. The more common motion type may directly position the pointer of a concentric indicating gage position a linkage to operate a recording pen or pneumatic relaying system to convert the measurement into a pneumatic signal or position an electrical transducer to convert to an electrical signal.

Bourdon spring gages in which pressure acts on a shaped flattened elastic tube are by far the most widely used type of instrument for pressures from 15 to 100 000 psi. These gages are simple rugged and inexpensive. See **BOURDON SPRING PRESSURE GAGE**.

In diaphragm element gages pressure applied to one or more contoured diaphragm disks acts

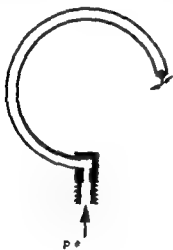


Fig 3 Bourdon tube

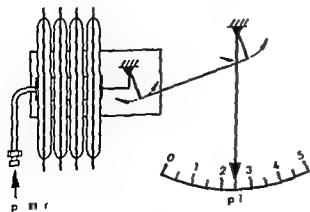


Fig 4 Diaphragm-element gage

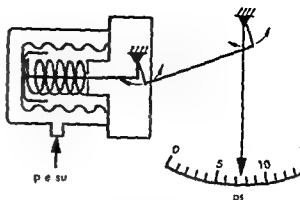


Fig 5 Bellows-element gage

against a spring or against the spring rate of the diaphragms producing a measurable motion. The size number and thickness of the disks determine the range from 2 in. of water to 30 psig.

For lower pressures slack membrane diaphragms are used opposed by a calibration spring. The instrument can detect differential pressures as low as 0.01 in. of water.

In bellows element gages pressure in or around the bellows moves the end plate of the bellows against a calibrated spring producing a measurable motion.

**Electrical pressure transducers** The electronic device converts a pressure to an electrical signal. They are used for applications requiring unusually high speed of response, high sensitivity, extremely high or low pressure measurement or for applications where an electrical signal representing pressure is more convenient to use than a mechanical motion representing pressure. See **PRESSURE TRANSDUCER**, **STRAIN GAGE**.

**Measurement standards** For pressures below 20 psig the universally accepted standard of pressure measurement—both in the laboratory and in the industrial plant—is the classic manometer using mercury or water.

For higher pressures the standard is the dead weight tester. The principle is the balance of the force exerted by a precisely known weight on the piston of precisely measured area against a variable hydraulic pressure.

The pressure gage which is to be checked or calibrated is connected to the hydraulic reservoir. Weights corresponding to the check pressure are placed on the piston. The piston and weights are rotated to reduce the effect of friction. Hydraulic pressure is increased. When the desired check pressure is reached the measuring piston floats freely.

The dead weight tester is often used as a primary standard for laboratory use and secondary standards (test gages which have been calibrated against the dead weight tester) are used as field or plant test instruments. Dead weight equipment is produced having accuracy to within 1/30 of 1% of reading. See **INSTRUMENTATION**, **PHYSICAL MEASUREMENT**.

[BDH HCP]  
Bibliography: D. M. Considine (ed.) *Process Instruments and Controls Handbook* 1957

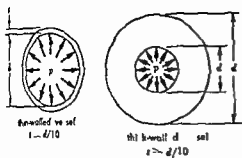


Figure 1 f m d to d f high p u

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 res, rolled heat a d f rmed nds are fastened  
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 e r t a l p res a manne smilar t the  
 r m al ad n e l m n S COLUMN

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 s res b th lue s = p d / 2 t l th x l d s  
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$$s_c = \frac{p(d + d^2)}{(d^2 - d^2)}$$

b d to th t d d d th a d dam  
 t S H CH PRESSCH PROGES [J J R]

Prestressed concrete

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 effect e in bending S e CONCRETE BEAM

An espec lly d r t l e character t e f pre-  
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Basic principles Th f l e t f e m p r e e p e  
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 prod e h i l t n l e a d m p r i e t r e a t  
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 b n e w th t t n a e t h c o m p r e n d

l o t the t n The w h l e o r e t e c t i o n  
 w l d be f f t e s t i n g b e n d n g and the e  
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 l o n g th e t a d l x s A m a l l e p e t e g  
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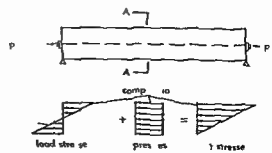


Fig 1 Str t t A A f b m w th f m p i



netic reluctance which is directly related to pressure. The change of reluctance is usually within one or two coils wound intimately about the magnetic material in the magnetic circuit.

A representative ratio type reluctance changing device is shown in Fig. 2. A bourdon tube or other pressure sensing device rotates the armature.

The reluctances (difficulty of passage of magnetic flux) in the magnetic paths A and B are determined chiefly by the lengths of the air gaps between the armature and the core. The inductance and inductive reactance of each winding depend on the reluctance in its magnetic path.

If the armature is at a neutral symmetrical position the air gaps are equal and the inductive reactances  $X_{LA}$  and  $X_{LB}$  are equal. Change of pressure decreases one air gap and increases the other thus changing the ratio of the inductive reactances  $X_{LA}$  and  $X_{LB}$ . The changes can be used in a variety of circuits to produce an electrical signal which is a measure of pressure. The signal is transmitted to a measuring or controlling instrument.

**Inductive type pressure transducer.** A change in inductance and inductive reactance of one or more windings is produced by the movement of a magnetic core that is positioned by a bourdon tube or other pressure sensing element. Unlike the action of a reluctance type transducer the inductance change is caused by a change in air gap within the winding rather than in a relatively remote portion of the magnetic circuit.

Figure 3 shows a representative ratio type inductive device. The pressure sensing element moves the core in response to changes of pressure. When the core is in a central position the inductances of the two coils are equal. When pressure change moves the core the ratio of the two inductances is changed. Energy is supplied to the coils by the same bridge circuit that measures the ratio of inductances. See **INDUCTANCE BRIDGE**.

Figure 4 shows another form of inductive pressure transducer—a differential transformer. A change of pressure moves the core changing the coupling and the ratio of inductance of the two secondary windings.

When the core is centered equal voltages are induced in the two oppositely wound windings and the output voltage is zero. Change of pressure moves the core increasing the voltage induced in one secondary and decreasing the voltage induced in the other. The change in output (differential) voltage is thus a measure of the pressure.

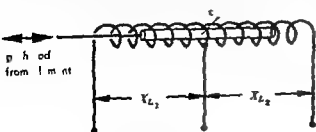


Fig. 3 Inductive pressure transducer

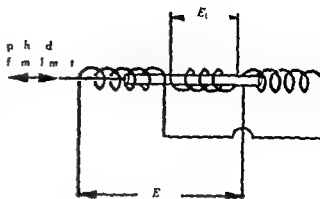


Fig. 4 Differential transformer

**Crystal pressure transducers.** A crystal produces an electric potential when placed under stress by a pressure-sensing element. The stress must be carefully oriented with respect to a specific axis of the crystal.

Suitable crystals include naturally occurring quartz and tourmaline and synthetic crystals such as Rochelle salts and barium titanate. The natural crystals are more rugged and less subject to drift of calibration. Although the synthetic crystals offer much higher voltage output an amplifier is almost always required.

Crystal transducers offer a high speed of response up to 1 000 000 cps. They are widely used for dynamic pressure measurements in such applications as ballistics and engine pressures. See **PIEZOELECTRIC CRYSTAL**.

**Capacitive pressure transducers.** Almost invariably these sense pressure by means of a metallic diaphragm which is also used as one plate of a capacitor. Any variation in pressure changes the distance between the diaphragm and the other plate thereby changing the electrical capacitance of the system. The change in capacitance can be used to modify the amplitude or the frequency of an electrical signal.

Transducers of this type are available to measure pressures as low as one millionth of one psi and as high as 10 000 psi with accuracies of 1% attainable. See **PRESSURE MEASUREMENT TRANSDUCER UNDERWATER** [BOPH HGP].

**Bibliography:** D. M. Conditine (ed.), *Process Instruments and Controls Handbook*, 1957.

## Pressure vessel

A cylindrical or spherical metal container capable of withstanding pressures exerted by the material enclosed. Pressure vessels are important for many liquid and gases must be stored under high pressure. Special emphasis is placed upon the strength of the vessel to prevent explosion as a result of rupture which would be dangerous to life and property. Code for the safety of which vessel have been developed that specify the design of the container for specified conditions.

**Construction.** Most pressure vessels are required to carry only low pressure and thus are constructed of tubes and sheet metal to form cylinders.



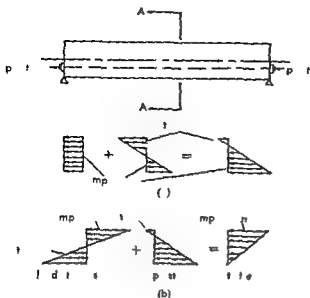


Fig 2 Stresses at section AA of a beam with eccentric prestress (a) In the unloaded beam the simple bending stress component is largely counteracted by the uniform compression component (b) When a load is applied all tension components are counteracted and only compression remains

axis of the beam. With the eccentric prestress stresses at each section of the unloaded beam may vary from tension at the top to compression at the bottom (Fig 2).

When loads are applied to the beam they produce both tensile and compressive stresses at the middle of the span. At the top of the beam they cause compressive stresses which are reduced by the tensile prestress there. Elsewhere the tensile stresses produced by the loads are counteracted by the compressive prestress.

With this arrangement of the tendons there is a possibility that near the ends of the beam the tensile prestress may exceed the compressive stress produced by the loads. The net tension may be undesirable even though very small. To avoid this condition the tendons may be draped in a vertical curve (Fig 3). The distribution of prestress at any section of a beam so prestressed is similar to that for straight tendons applying an eccentric prestress except that the stress decreases from midspan toward the ends as do the bending stresses due to the loads. The draped arrangement of the tendons also is advantageous in counteracting diagonal tension near the ends of the beam.

Continuous beams may be prestressed in a similar manner. The tendons may be placed near the bottom of the beam near midspan and near the top over support.

**Tendons** Tendons generally are made of high strength steel so that they can serve at high working stress—for bars about 80 000 psi and for wires well over 100 000 psi compared with the 20 000 psi or less ordinarily permitted for reinforcing steel.

Tendon must be tensioned to high stresses before being anchored to the concrete because losses

in stress due to shrinkage and plastic flow of concrete are relatively high. If the tendons are tensioned to only 20 000 psi for example, they might lose nearly all the prestress in a few days. But at 100 000 psi tension the loss might be about 15% because the increase in stress is not proportional to the increase in prestress.

Creep or plastic flow of concrete or temperature deformation dependent on time resulting solely from stress. Concrete shrinks and chemical change take place. It is dependent on time but not on stress. External loading. In the absence of specific information the loss of prestress due to shrinkage of tendons are anchored to the concrete throughout the length of a member before shrinkage has taken place may be assumed to be 0.0002 in 6000 psi for steel with a modulus of elasticity of 30 000 000. When tendons are anchored to concrete after it has cured for several days, prestress losses due to shrinkage may be about 0.001. The loss due to creep of the concrete is assumed as 2.25 times the elastic compression. **CREEP OF MATERIALS**

Other possible losses in prestress that should be considered include those due to creep of the concrete and to friction when the tendons rub against the concrete. See PLASTIC DEFORMATION OF METALS.

Wires are used for prestressing much more frequently than bars because of their greater strength. They may be used singly in pairs in cables composed of several parallel wires or in strands. They may be stretched by electric heating but the most common method of tensioning is with jacks. Various devices are used for gripping or anchoring tendons including tapered fittings on the ends of bars, wedges and buttonheads on the ends of strands.

**Pretensioning and posttensioning** Two methods are used in fabricating prestressed concrete. In the first method the concrete is bonded to the steel before the prestress is applied. This is pretensioning. In the other method the prestress is applied initially through anchorages and the concrete may or may not be bonded to the steel.

In pretensioning the steel is laid through beam forms and stretched between external jacks. Next concrete is placed in the forms and allowed to set. When it has gained sufficient strength the external pull on the tendons is released transferring the prestress to the concrete through bond. Suitable for mass production, this method can be used on casting beds several hundred feet long to produce many beam units at once.

In posttensioning the tendons are prestressed from bonding initially to the concrete usually

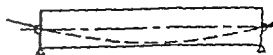


Fig 3 Beam with tendon draped in a vertical curve



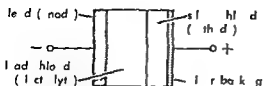
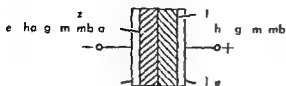


Fig. 1 Solid-electrolyte cell with solid crystalline salt electrolyte



**Fig 2** Ion exchange b metallic cell with solid electrolyte

vapor which can cause cell failure and being difficult to make free from leakage For examples of cells with aqueous electrolytes see DRY CELL

**MERCURY BATTERY WET CELL**

**Solid electrolyte batteries** These use electrolytes of solid crystalline salts which have predominantly ionic conductivity. The conductivity is small compared with aqueous electrolytes and the current output is of the order of 10<sup>-3</sup> amp/in<sup>2</sup>.

Solid electrolyte batteries may be classified in two broad categories (1) cells with solid crystalline salt such as silver iodide as the electrolyte (2) cells with ion exchange membrane as the electrolyte. In either category the conductivity must be nearly  $10^6$  ionic. Any electronic conductivity causes a continuous discharge of the cell and will limit the stand or shelf life.

A typical cell with solid crystalline salt electrolyte is the lead-lead chloride-silver chloride cell in Fig. 1. Here lead is the anode, lead chloride is the electrolyte, and silver chloride is the cathode. This cell has a potential of 0.49 volt. During discharge, lead is oxidized to lead ion and silver chloride is reduced to silver.

Cells with solid alkali electrolyte have been developed into miniature batteries. One type delivers 90-100 volts at 10 amp and has a capacity of 1 amp sec. This is over 10 days at 10- amp. The practical life of the cell is much less but may be as much as 10 years at room temperature. It can be stored at 160 F for at least 30 days and will operate over the range -65 to +165 F. The battery is  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. in diameter 1 in. in length.

An example of a cell with ion exchange membrane as electrolyte is the zinc-zinc ion exchange membrane silver ion exchange membrane-silver cell shown in Fig 2. Physically the metal electrodes are in contact with the solid membrane which contains two regions. The region adjacent to the zinc is in the zinc ion state. The region adjacent to the silver is in the silver ion state. The discharge reaction increases the zinc ion quantity and decreases the silver ion quantity in proportion to the amount of charge transferred. This cell has a potential of about 1.5 volt.

The zinc-silver cell described has serious shortcomings. The standard life is poor indicating internal self-discharge and the capacity is limited by the available supply of silver ions. In strongly ionized types of ion exchange material the volume density of ionizing sites is about 1 equiv/liter or 0.1 amp-hr/in. This is very low compared with metal-oxide cathodes.

A cell with higher capacity can be made by replacing the silver ion exchange material and the by manganese dioxide plated on an inert metal such as tantalum. This gives a capacity of about 100 times as much for equal volume.

Ion exchange electrolytes are also used with hydrogen and oxygen gas electrodes. The electrodes consist of platinized metal screens. The electrolyte is a hydrogen ion exchange material. The room temperature emf of this cell is 0.96 volt. See ION-EXCHANGE MEMBRANE.

**Waxy electrolyte batteries** The new waxy materials such as polyethylene glycol in which a small amount of a salt is dissolved in the molten wax. At room temperatures the material are solid. The conductivity is small and the current output is limited to about 10 amp/in.

Figure 4 shows a battery pack of cells using a waxy electrolyte. The electrodes are sheet zinc and manganese dioxide. The electrolyte is made of polyethylene glycol in which is dissolved a small amount of zinc chloride. This electrolyte is melted and painted on a paper sheet to form the separator (Fig. 4).

A 25 cell stack built as shown in Fig 4 and measuring 0.34 in in length and 0.25 in in diameter weighed 15 g. A 0.50 in diameter stack weighed 60 g. The initial open circuit voltage was 37.5 volts (1.5 volts per cell).

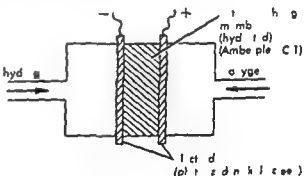


Fig. 3 Solid-electrolyte cell with an ion exchange membrane as electrolyte

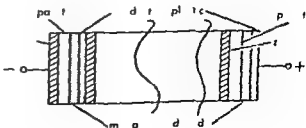


Fig. 4. Waxy-electrolyte battery stack.





Fig 1 Solid-electrolyte cell with solid crystalline salt electrolyte

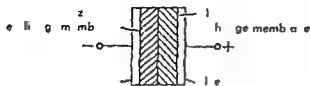


Fig 2 Ion exchange bimetallic cell with solid electrolyte

vapor which can cause cell failure and being difficult to make free from leakage. For examples of cells with aqueous electrolytes see DRY CELL, MERCURY BATTERY, WET CELL.

**Solid electrolyte batteries** These use electrolytes of solid crystalline salts which have predominantly ionic conductivity. The conductivity is small compared with aqueous electrolytes and the current output is of the order of 10<sup>-4</sup> amp/in.

Solid electrolyte batteries may be classified in two broad categories: (1) cells with solid crystalline salt such as silver iodide as the electrolyte; (2) cells with ion exchange membrane as the electrolyte. In either category the conductivity must be nearly 100% ionic. Any electronic conductivity causes a continuous discharge of the cell and will limit the stand or shelf life.

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The zinc-silver cell described has serious shortcomings. The stand life is poor, indicating internal self-discharge, and the capacity is limited by the available supply of silver ion. In strongly ionized types of ion exchange material, the volume density of ionizing sites is about 1 equiv/liter or 0.4 amp-hr/in. This is very low compared with metal oxide cathode.

A cell with higher capacity can be made by replacing the silver ion exchange material and silver by manganese dioxide plated on an inert metal such as tantalum. This gives a capacity of about 100 times as much for equal volume.

Ion exchange electrolytes are also used with hydrogen and oxygen gas electrodes. The electrodes consist of platinized metal screens. The electrolyte is a hydrogen ion exchange material. The room temperature emf of this cell is 0.96 volt. See ION EXCHANGE MEMBRANE.

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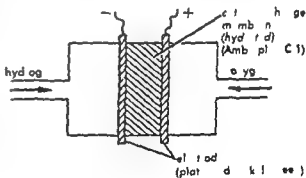


Fig 3 Solid-electrolyte cell with ion exchange membrane as electrolyte

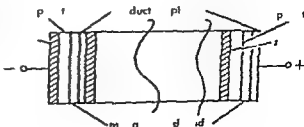


Fig 4 Waxy-electrolyte battery stack

Table 1. Dimensional and performance criteria of some selected fluid displacement type prime movers

Type	Size hp	Rpm	Stroke in	Bore at ke rat	iston speed ft/min	Brake m p ps	Diagrammatic efficiency
Steam engine	50	100-300	6-1	0.8-1	100-600	50-100	0.6-0.8
Horizontal engine	10-300	000-1000	3-5	0.9-1.1	1000-000	50-100	0.4-0.6†
Locomotive engine	100-3000	00-300	1-7	0.8-1.1	100-3000	100-30	0.4-0.6†
Diesel, low-speed	100-000	100-300	10-1	0.8-1.0	500-1000	10-80	0.4-0.7
Diesel, high-speed	1-1000	100-000	3-6	0.8-1.0	800-1500	50-100	0.4-0.6†

Long throw standard  
† American standard

Table 2. Dimensional and performance criteria of some selected fluid acceleration type prime movers

Type	Rating kw	Number of stages	Head ft or psi	Temperature F	Exit velocity in ft/sec	Rpm	Tip speed ft/sec	Efficiency
Pelton water turbine	1000-50 000	1	00-5000 ft	Ambient	tm	100-100	100-0	0.7-0.85
Francis hydraulic turbine	1000-100 000	1	50-1000 ft	Ambient	tm	360	0-00	0.8-0.9
Propeller (axial flow) hydraulic turbine	000-100 000	1	0-100 ft	Ambient	tm	180	0-10	0.8-0.9
Small axial flow steam turbine	100-5000	1-1	100-100 psi	400-00	1-5	1800-10 000	00-800	0.5-0.8
Large condensing steam turbine	100 000-00 000	0-50	1400-5000 psi	900-100	1-3	1800-3600	500-100	0.8-0.9
Gas turbine	500-10 000	10-70	0-100 psi	100-1400	atm	3600-10 000	00-1500	0.8-0.9

Draft tube gives static pressure on discharge from

with appropriate design of the piston means equivalent to the relative motion of the machine parts. (1) If the flow through a nozzle where the fluid is at a jet (axial) mechanical energy is transformed into the mechanical energy by the piston or both.

(2) Displacement prime mover Power output of a displacement pump machine is conveniently determined by pressure-time measurement. The indicated work is deduced by integrating the mean pressure (m p s) pressure with the power of the machine is given by

$$h \text{ is power} = \frac{m \times X \times L \times n}{33000} \quad (1)$$

where  $L$  is the length of a piston area in cubic feet of cycle completed per minute. If the pump is small then the theoretical work is deduced from the fluid displacement. Acceleration prime mover Performance of a fluid acceleration pump motors is given by the equation

$$h \text{ sepow} = \frac{QH}{88} \times \text{efficiency} \quad (2)$$

where  $Q$  is water flow rate in cubic feet per second and  $H$  is head in feet. For heat power prime mover of the fluid acceleration type the properties of the thermodynamic fluid are essential and graphs especially the Mollier chart permit the prediction of the work power output from the general efficiency equation which resolves to the form

$$\Delta W \text{ Btu/lb of fluid} = h_1 - h_2 \quad (3)$$

where  $h$  is the enthalpy in Btu/lb and the inlet and exhaust conditions can be connected by a constant pressure process for the design modification. The reversibility to a large difference by engine efficiency (Fig 3 Table 2). Fluid compression follows from

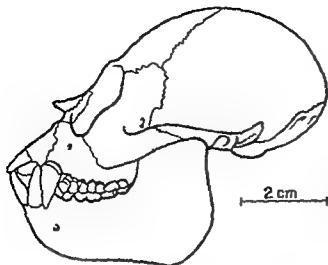
$$\text{fluid compression lb per hph} = 2545/\Delta W \quad (4)$$

$$\text{lb per kwh} = 3413/\Delta W \quad (5)$$

In the fluid acceleration type prime mover jet engine experiences the nozzle exit fluid in feet per second from expansion is defined by

$$\text{jet velocity} = C \sqrt{gH} = 80 C \sqrt{H} \quad (6)$$





Skull of *Cebupithecus sarmientoi* a late Miocene New World monkey from Colombia South America (After A. Strio 1951)

there are numerous Eocene prosimians with tarsoid characters there are no middle or late Tertiary forms linking them with the living tarsier

New World monkeys (Cebidae) appeared for the first time in the late Oligocene and early Miocene of Argentina. They were already typical ceboids at that time. Thus no clue is provided concerning their ancestral relations. Others have been found in the late Miocene of Colombia. *Homunculus* is related to the howler monkey, *Aesopius* to the squirrel monkeys and *Cebupithecus* to the sakis and uakaris monkeys. An aberrant extinct genus *Xenothrix* has been discovered in a kitchen midden in Jamaica. It seems likely that the Cebidae arose from an early prosimian group from North America.

Old World monkeys (Cercopithecoidea) and apes (Hominoidea) seem to have descended from different groups of Eocene prosimians. The earliest cercopithecoid *Moeripithecus* occurs in the early Oligocene of Egypt. Other more advanced genera such as *Ankarapithecus*, *Mesopithecus* and *Dolichopithecus* have been found in Pliocene faunas mostly in central and southern Europe. Some of the living genera also extend back into the Pliocene. Baboons recognized at a glance because of their elongated faces first appeared in the Pliocene and are one of the most common cercopithecoid group. One Pleistocene genus *Dinopithecus* related to *Megaladapis* (Lemuridae) and *Gigantopithecus* (Hominoidea) as one of the largest primates.

Among the most interesting primates of the Old World is *Oreopithecus* from Mount Bambola, Italy. Some of its characters have been emphasized in support of possible hominid relationship. But allocation to the Hominoidea has not yet been firmly established.

There are many divergent lineages of ape and apelike creature all restricted to the Eastern Hemisphere. *Parapithecus* known from a pair of lower jaws from the early Oligocene of Egypt with some prosimian characters represents the most primitive of the e groups. Other middle to late Ter-

tiary genera such as *Propliopithecus*, *Limnopithecus* and *Pliopithecus* although related to the living gibbons may have been more terrestrial in habits. The orangutans, chimpanzees and gorillas apparently are the descendants of dryopithecine apes represented by the genera *Proconsul*, *Dryopithecus*, *Suapithecus* and others in Miocene and Pliocene faunas. The Tertiary genera also possess hominid characters indicating a common basic heritage with the Hominoidea. Perhaps the most spectacular of all apes is the giant orangutanlike *Gigantopithecus* in the Pleistocene of China. See FOSSIL MAN [MCMC RAS]

## Prime mover

The component of a power plant that transform energy from the thermal or the pressure form to the mechanical form. Mechanical energy may be in the form of a rotating or a reciprocating shaft or a jet for thrust or propulsion. The prime mover is frequently called an engine or turbine and is represented by such machines as water wheels, hydraulic turbines, steam engines, steam turbine windmills, gas turbines, internal combustion engine and jet engines. These prime movers operate by either of two principles (Fig. 1): (1) balanced expansion, positive displacement, intermittent flow of a working fluid into and out of a piston and cylinder mechanism, so that by pressure difference

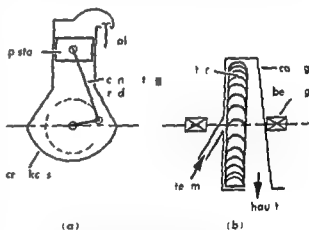


Fig. 1. Representation of prime movers: (a) Single-acting four-cycle automotive-type internal combustion engine; (b) Single-stage impulse steam turbine.

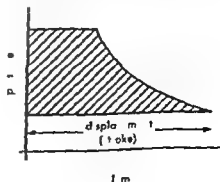


Fig. 2. Pressure of medium (indicated by shaded area) versus displacement (stroke) of piston.

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Co do 104 PAINT SURFACE COATING

[FSD]

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STOMIA [H L II]

Primulaes

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EMBRYOPHYTA PLANT KINGDOM [PDS]

Printed circuit

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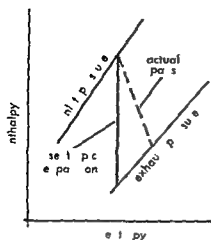


Fig 3 Enthalpy-entropy (Mlle) chart showing performance of steam or gas turbine type of prime mover

and for expansive fluids by

$$\text{jet velocity} = C \sqrt{2g\Delta H} = 223.7 C \sqrt{\Delta H} \quad (7)$$

where  $H$  and  $\Delta H$  are as given above and  $C$  is the velocity coefficient seldom less than 0.95 and usually from 0.98 to 0.99

Selected representative performance values of some prime movers are presented in Tables 1 and 2. For further details see INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINE STEAM ENGINE TURBINE [T.B.]

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## Primer (explosive)

An agent used with explosive propellants and pyrotechnics to produce the initial fire. The primer itself may be initiated by percussion, static friction, or heat. The gases and hot particles from the primer serve in turn to ignite a larger mass of material, for example the gunpowder in a cartridge, the primary explosive in a detonator cap, or the powder train in a fuze. The term primer is sometimes loosely applied to a detonator.

The amount of primer used is usually about 0.1 gram or less. A common example is the tiny globule that may be seen on the ends of the fuse wire post in a photographic flashbulb; this material serves to ignite the aluminum foil.

Although primer compounds deslagrate rapidly, they do not detonate. In fact a detonating action would be most undesirable because it would tend to flow away rather than to ignite the charge. The total burning time of a primer is about 500 microseconds.

Primer mixture sensitive primarily to friction may consist simply of potassium chlorate as the oxidizer and antimony sulfide as the fuel. Such a mixture produces hot particles as well as gases.

Ground glass or silicon carbide may be added to increase the frictional effect and sulfur to make the mixture quicker (more sensitive). Also very fine grained black powder (meal powder) is sometimes added. The ingredients are made up in a paste with a small amount of gum arabic which binds them together when the paste dries.

Cartridge percussion caps usually contain a primary explosive such as mercury fulminate in addition to the materials mentioned above. However, primary explosives are not essential; they may be replaced by other materials such as lead thiocyanate. Lead compounds seem to be preferred, probably because of the hot particles of lead oxide that they produce. Lead tetraphosphate (2,4,6-trinitrorescorcinic) is now a common percussion cap component.

In detonator caps the primer is often of a match head composition. In fact the formulation of primers is quite similar to that of matches and pyrotechnics and ingredients such as potassium chlorate, sulfur, and antimony sulfide are common in all applications. See DETONATOR EXPLOSIVE AND EXPLOSIVE MATCH PYROTECHNICS [W.E.G.]

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## Primer (surface coating)

A material used for the first coat of paint. Primers are designed to promote adhesion of the coating system to the substrate, to furnish a good base for further coating, and to prevent attack on the substrate by air, water, or other material. Primers are not intended to contribute exterior durability or appearance.

Primers for wood are formulated to give the maximum adhesion to the wood and to provide sufficient flexibility to adjust to the dimensional changes which occur when the wood swells and shrinks because of changes in moisture content. When designed for exterior wood they should also be resistant to the penetration of moisture and to the action of moisture in destroying adhesion. Primers for interior wood, often called undercoaters, must also have good adhesion to wood and because they are often used under enamel must give a smooth film and permit easy sanding.

Primers for metal must, in addition to giving good adhesion, prevent the spread of rust, scratches, or other damage which uncover the surface. For this purpose they usually contain a corrosion-inhibiting pigment which retards the electrochemical reaction that causes corrosion. The most common inhibitive pigments are red lead, zinc chromate, and barium lead chromate. A number of other related pigments are often used and numerous others have been suggested. Because all these are somewhat toxic, primers based on red iron oxide are often used when they are to be dry-sanded or when fireproofing is required. Material must be avoided. These pigments do not have any inhibitive action but rely on a tight film to prevent corrosion.

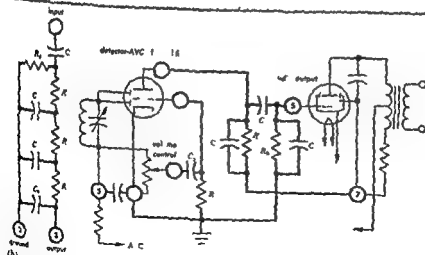
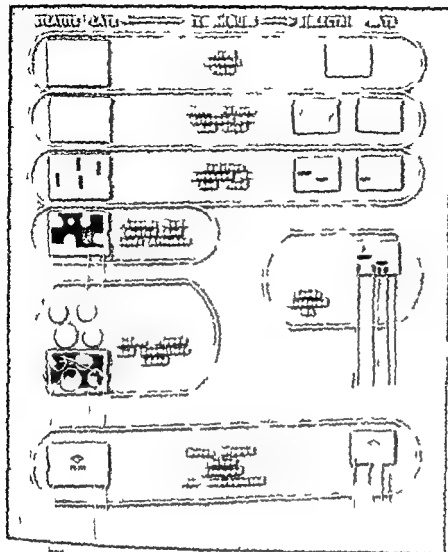


Fig 2. P. 1 d  
Circuit diagram  
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d t p p o t d f t h p l t  
(b) S h m t d g m o f t ( ) C t / b  
D G l b I I t )

Printed circuits are of interest to industry for the following reason

1 Printed circuits are the common denominator for almost all approaches to the mechanized fabrication of electronic equipment

2 Use of printed circuits has greatly reduced the labor required for the wiring of an electronic circuit. This is specifically true for small electronic units used in airborne or guided missile equipment

3 Printed circuit can be manufactured more uniformly because the graphic art processes are mechanized

4 Uniformity of printed circuits improves the quality of the product through simplification of quality control

5 Printed circuitry has helped to minimize one major cause of unreliability in electronic equipment by permitting the use of dip soldering processes (In dip soldering the joints between the electronic component and the conductor are exposed to molten solder and joined in one precisely controlled operation)

The most commonly used printed circuit processes may be divided roughly into three main groups listed in the order of greatest acceptance (1) material removal process (2) film deposition processes and (3) mold and die processes

**Material removal processes** Of the material removal processes photoetching and stencil etching are probably the most widely used techniques. They are used primarily in the fabrication of printed wiring

**Photoetching** In photoetching the etchant resist pattern (conductor pattern) is formed photographically and is capable of providing fine definition of the conductor lines such as those required for small commutators and switch contacts. A photosensitive film is applied to a copper foil which is bonded to a plastic laminate such as paper base phenolic. A photographic negative of the circuit pattern (originally drawn several times full size) is superimposed on the sensitized film and the film is exposed to ultraviolet light. This method is similar to the production of a photographic positive. After exposure the photosensitive film hardens. The plate is then placed in alcohol which dissolves the unexposed film from the copper foil. The exposed areas are left covered by the hardened film which serves to protect the copper foil during the subsequent etching process. The uncovered copper is next dissolved in an acid or ferric chloride etchant bath. Finally the hardened film is dissolved from the exposed areas leaving copper conductors in the original circuit pattern (see Fig 1)

**Stencil etching** In stencil etching the protective film forming the circuit pattern is applied by a printing process such as silk screening. The protective film usually an enamel is dried and the exposed copper is etched as previously described

**Film deposition processes** The mechanical application technique stencil screening and electroplating are the deposition processes most often

used for the fabrication of circuits on either plastic or ceramic base materials. For component such as precision resistor vacuum deposition techniques are used usually on ceramic or glass base material. Chemical or photochemical reduction techniques

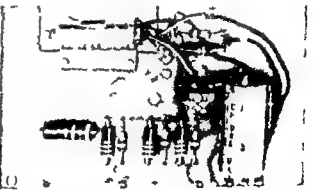
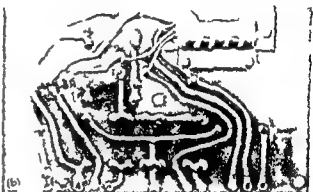
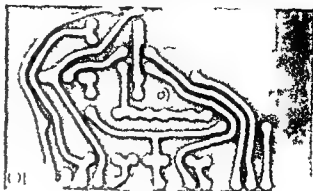


Fig 1 Etched copper circuit on epoxy-glass laminate (a) Copper circuit pattern with etchant resist removed ready for drilling of holes to mount component parts (b) Circuit pattern side of board with component parts mounted and lead connections soldered. Subminiature tube was mounted as direct beam connections made after the rest of the parts were dip-soldered (c) Component side of board shows parts mounted through holes in circuit board. After the parts are soldered a coating of epoxy resin is applied to both sides of the circuit board to serve as a moisture barrier and to bond the parts to the board (Ramo-Wooldridge Co)



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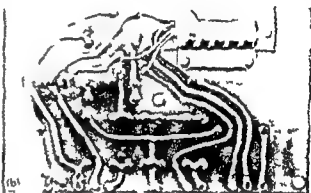
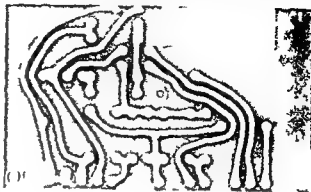
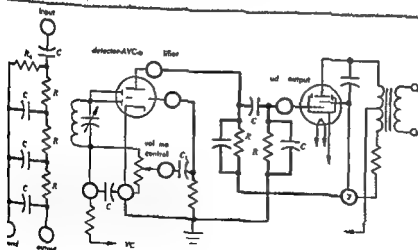
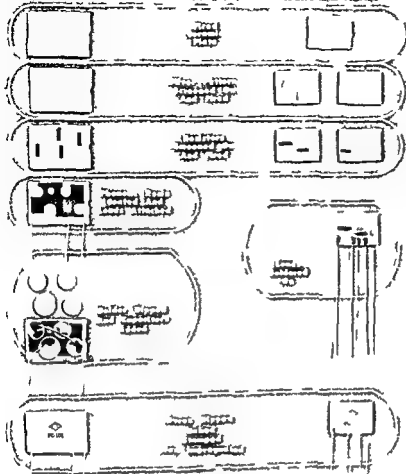


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PLATE DATA - CATHODE - ANODE



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 t t m c Th b pl t d D G l b U l J



are used for deposition of materials to form resistances or capacitances. Photoelectrostatic techniques have also been developed primarily for the fabrication of conductive elements.

**Screening method** The screening method to form the circuit (conductors, resistors, capacitors and in some cases low value inductances) uses ceramic or glass as a base material (see Fig 2). A silver paste usually with a glass binder is applied through a screen stencil to form the conductor pattern. The stencil is usually formed by a photographic process similar to that used for the photo-etching process previously mentioned. After the silver paste has dried it is fired in a furnace at temperatures between 750 and 1350 F to bond the silver pattern to the base.

**Resistance components** Resistive elements are usually formed by one of the three methods listed in the order of degree of precision required: (1) screened or sprayed; (2) applied as a tape and (3) vacuum deposited.

Resistive inks are composed of various forms of carbon with a resin binder (such as phenolic or epoxy) and a solvent vehicle. This mixture is applied through a stencil to form a rectangular pattern between two conductors and then baked at a temperature between 150 and 600 F. The value of resistance is determined by varying the type of carbon used (the ratio of carbon to binder mix), the aspect ratio (the ratio of length to width) of the rectangular pattern and to some extent the thickness of the film. Resistive elements printed in this manner have wide tolerance limits and it is usually necessary to adjust the resistive value by some means such as abrading the surface or one edge of the pattern. Thus the resistive element is formed with a value below that required and then adjusted to fall within the design tolerance limits. The stability of the resistance value is dependent primarily on the type of carbon used and the binder material. In general, resins cured at higher temperatures provide more stable resistance value. Thus an epoxy or silicone binder would provide a more stable resistance than that obtained with a phenolic binder. Printed resistor of the type mentioned above are used primarily in consumer products such as radio or television sets where the tolerance requirements and operating environment are not too severe.

In order to overcome the difficulty of producing resistive elements to close tolerances and to increase the probability of producing a number of resistive elements on the same circuit base to reasonable tolerances, the tape resistor was developed. This form of resistor is capable of operating at temperature up to 400 F. The resistor is fabricated by pressing metal free abrasive paper with an ink composed of carbon, silicone resin and solvent. The tape is applied to the circuit base and is then cured at 5-5 F for several hours to polymerize the resin. Curing of the resin binder also bonds the tape to the circuit base thus forming the completed resistor. Resistance values between 10 ohms and 10 megohms  $\pm 6\%$  within an area of 0.13 by

0.30 in. are obtainable by changing the type of carbon used and the ratio of carbon to resin.

**Fabrication of printed resistors by vacuum deposition** is an expensive process and there has been no general application of this technique except for precision resistive elements. Usually alloys with a low thermal coefficient of resistance (such as nickel-chromium alloys) are deposited as a thin film on a glass or ceramic base by vacuum evaporation technique.

**Capacitance components** Printed capacitors are fabricated as part of the conductor circuit pattern when a high dielectric constant ceramic such as one of the titanates is used as the circuit base material. Conductive patterns are screened on opposite sides of the circuit base to form the capacitor. The dielectric constant of the titanates varies widely with temperature, thus the capacitors are quite temperature sensitive and are limited to circuit that accommodate wide circuit tolerance.

Most printed circuit capacitors are fabricated from lithium titanate with additive to obtain temperature stability. The ceramic disks are silvered on both sides in much the same manner as the circuit patterns were formed on a ceramic base. The capacitor is joined to the ceramic circuit base by the use of lead tin solder containing approximately 3-5% silver to prevent the molten solder from dissolving the silvered conductor.

**Plating process** In the plating process (economical only to etching in popularity for the fabrication of circuit conductors) a plastic laminate such as paper base phenolic is first coated with a material that conducts electricity. This may be done by forming a 0.0001 in. silver coating on the surface of the laminate in much the same way that mirrors are silvered. The silver film is then coated with a

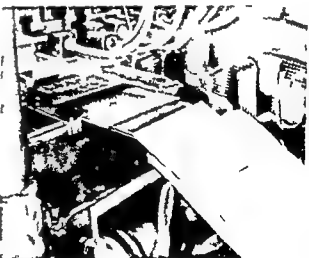


Fig 3 Close-up of machine embossing copper foil circuit pattern onto a phenolic paper laminate. The copper foil feed goes to the machine from left. The right has a temperature sensitive adhesive on the underside. The die of the embossing goes to a hot die that the circuit pattern embosses the edges of the conductors to the phenolic and temperature sensitive adhesive to form a bond with the base plate. (A W F 11)



It has often been said that the key to the future in the graphic arts is the camera and it is possible that this last development may in the end turn out to be the most important of the four. Meanwhile as in every mechanized industry other technical developments come now in the experimental stage some already in being for instance printing in which ink is jumped from type to paper across a gap may revolutionize the industry not necessarily overnight but on short notice and thereby may render obsolete some or all of the procedures and techniques described in this article.

In the printing industry of today there are three major methods or processes in use for transferring ink to paper. These are (1) relief or letterpress printing in which the printing surface composed of type and printing plates is in relief and the nonprinting parts are below the printing surface; (2) planographic printing in which type matter and pictorial material transferred (usually by photography) to a single plate are printed from an even surface; and (3) intaglio printing in which the parts that are to print both typographic and pictorial are cut or etched into the plate and are below the plate surface.

The term letterpress is used in book publishing to refer to the text matter or typographic content of book as well as to the relief printing process.

To the above is sometimes added a fourth process screen or stencil printing in which ink is brushed or squeezed onto paper through a stencil that may carry either pictorial or typographic material or both. This process however accounts for a comparatively small percentage of the total volume of printing. There are also specialized processes of limited application as found for instance in copying machine which are considered in another article. See **PHOTOCOPYING PROCESSES**.

### **RELIEF PRINTING (LETTERPRESS)**

Relief or letterpress printing is the oldest of the three major processes with a history that dates back more than 500 years; twice that if its beginnings in China are included. Although other processes notably offset have shown a relatively greater percentage increase in volume in recent years and have taken over an increasing amount of work formerly done by letterpress, it still remains the basic process and the largest in volume of the three. It is used today for almost all newspaper, book, and magazines and for the general run of advertising commercial form and miscellaneous printing.

**Typesetting.** In the procedure usually followed in letterpress printing copy marked for size and face of type and for length of line is sent to the composing room where it is set in type usually on one of the hot metal composing machines—Linotype, Intertype or Monotype or Ludlows Typograph in the larger type. Foundrycast type for hand setting is also used but mostly for heading

and the like. The resulting composition including head, body matter, caption and incidental after having been proofread and corrected is then assembled into page along with line engraving (printing plates made from pen and ink drawing and other art work done in line) and halftone (plates made from photograph with drawing and other art work done in continuous tone). See **COMPOSITION (TYPE)**, **PRINTING PLATE**.

In the printing of large edition newspaper type and plates are assembled into page and the page each locked up in a heavy metal frame called a chase which holds all elements of the page securely in place. A thick sheet of papier mache the stereotype matrix (mat) is then placed over the type page and squeezed down upon it by hydraulic or mechanical pressure so that when removed and dried it constitutes a mold or matrix of the page. From this in turn a stereotype plate is cast usually in semicylindrical form and about  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. in thickness. The curvature corresponds to that of the printing cylinder of the press on which it is to be used. If the page or part of the page is to print in a color or colors (in addition to black) a separate mat and plate are made for each color.

**Rotary presses (newspaper).** Because of the high production speed required the large metropolitan dailies are printed on web-fed rotary presses which print from large heavy roll of newspaper that pass through the press in continuous web and which carry the printing plates on the surface of printing cylinder. Each printing cylinder usually carries four or eight plates and thus will print four or eight pages on one side of the web at each revolution. An impression cylinder keeps the web pressed against the plate which are inked by a set of rollers at a tangent to the printing cylinder.

The large rotary press consists of a number of printing units each containing two printing cylinders (complete with impression cylinder) and each printing on a separate web four or eight pages on one side and four or eight pages on the other. Any or all of the units may be brought into operation depending upon the number of pages to be printed and may be used for additional sections or for color printing. (The increasing use of color has been one of the outstanding developments in newspaper printing during the 1930's.) Eventually the web from the several units are brought together and fed through a device built into or attached to the press which automatically guides them their down the middle fold, cut them into individual papers with page in proper order, fold the paper across the middle and counts them—all this at speed of 50,000 or more impressions per hour per press unit. Web speed in the larger rotary average about 1500 ft/min.

For dailies of smaller circulation which still must meet exacting delivery deadline a small type of rotary press built the tubular press—so called because the stereotype plates are used in cylinder

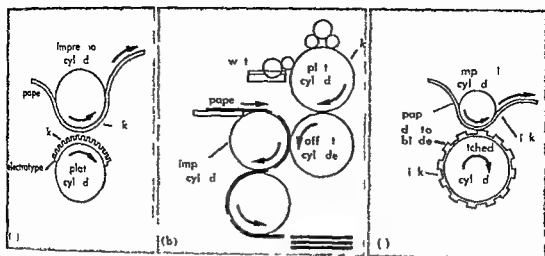


Fig 1 (a) (b) (c) Pl g phc (1) (2) (3)

dral m. test of micylndral form nd are curved pit g cyl d s f c p ndingl smaller diamet Th e p esse consist of up t fur the ch suall printing f p g two on ab d of th web and ec pable of d lie m l r 16-p g paper at peed f u nd 45 000

F dales f only a f w thousand culation and f weekl pap m th re a al typ s of m e r l u s special ed p e s me printing from ba nd som f om b t S me of th op ate on th f t bed p i ple d r o s t p i n t d c t l y from the type p g w th ut use f ste e types or th r f o r m o f d p l i c t p l a t s

Rotary presses (magazine) Th b d t at nally re l t d mag zin wh d e lette press (L) Th S t u day Exent g Post and Ad v s D s t are x m p l s e p r t e d o ebled ta gene ally n l m per t n g p n e p l t th e d f o the l g o d l b t wch tw p o n t f d i f f e n m the pre m ke p o n b t the p r i g f l l u t a t n t f l l c o l o from fine-c half m o b t h s i d f t h b and a d i f f e r t f o m o f d u p l e t p l a t the lectotype (l t r) s g e r a l l y e d a t d f the reetyp The letotype p r p r e d by mak ng m l d f the type page h l l o p l e a s a w m a y b t h n u s e i g t h i s m l d n a h a l f p p u l l t e a d s l f i c c i d w h b y w t l e t s a c t a t h n s h l l o f p p e r d p r e d o t, and f l l y p o i n g m l i e n t y p e m t l n t t h l l t b a k t p a d g i t h b o d y a d n e w p b r q e d t d u p the p s s f t e r d p l n g t d o w n t the r q d t h k n e s F l e c t t y p e i t e d d f o r y l g r u e r a l l y w t h c o l r e d s k ( m e f w h c h t b e m a l l n c o p p e r ) t h n u r f a e o f k e l s b r o d p o r e d f i t f o l l w e d b y c p p e r s h e l l and b k u p m s l T h l e c t o t y p e i s m e p a e and t k e s l m t o m k e t h a n the t r e a t i t - f r o m 2-8 h u - b t s m o d b l a d r e m r e f i t h f i s q u a l t y d u p l c t n o f 120

d 133-h e h l f t m n b t h b l k and white and color s ch are us d i n s l k paper m a g a z i n e s i n m h b o w o r k d m the b e t t e g r d e s o f a d e r t i s i n g p a t g

Ste cotypes m y b m d e the c i r v e d o r f l t e l c t r t y p e s a r e m a d f l a t a n d i f s o u e n t a r y p e s e s r v d b y m e c h a c l p e

Electrotypes and st typ h a e b t h l g b used b k p r n t g p a r t i c u l a r l y w h n the f i r s t e d i t i o n i s l a g d b q u e t e d t i n a l i k e l y A m r e r e t d e l o p m e n t f o r b o k w k d i p l e a t e p l a t e m d f b b r o n a f l e x i b l e m u n t n g w h i c h c a n b e f o u n d a r d the p i t g y l d r f a t a r y p r e s D u p l i c a t e p l t o f m l d d r u b b r p l s t n d e m n y l o n a r e a l i n u s e f b o o k m a g z i n e n d m m l p n t

Flat bed presses. Smaller ed t p n t n g w h e n d n e l t t e r p e s (p u b l i c a t i o n b k l e t p m p h l s b u s i n e s f m f o l d t h m a l u f c m m r e a l p r i t i n ) i s d u d m t l y o n o n e n t h r f r m o f f l a t b e d p r e s c a l l e d b a u e the t y p p a g e d p l e t p l a t e (i f s h p l a t e s d) t d f b g l k e d t h u r f a e f a m i n t g y l n d p t e d o n f i l d g b d h n t l n m t p e e w h c h m o e l i k d f t h n d y l d e r M t f i t h n t n g d t w b b t o h t f p a y n g n g i s e f m 12 b y 18 t o 44 b y 64 d l a g T h y l d n t a p t g c y l d s t d t e l t a n d g o f t h e e t t g r p p e r d the s h e e t u n d w t h i b g n g t n t m t a t w t h t h f m f t y p p a g e o p l a t e a s the b d l d e t h u g h n d e n e t h the e b y p a t n g s i d f t h e e t F o m m y s t o f 4 8 12 16 m o e p g (t h e y g e l l y i n m u l t p l o f f o ) w h l e l c k e d u p t g t h a c h a d p o t d n g l m p e s o n A t h b e d f the p s i t u r e d t o i t r g l p o t o n the y l d r s a d b y a m t o n t h t i t w i l l n t e m s n t t w t h t h f m w h l a t the a m t u m t d l m p t d h t t t a p m m l d e v e

which carry it to the delivery end of the press and deposit it on the sheets previously printed.

Presses of this type are also known as cylinder presses and in most cases require two revolutions of the cylinder for each impression.

The sheets produced on flat-bed presses after being printed on both sides are folded by machine (or sometimes by hand) into signatures of 4, 8, 16, 32 or more pages with page in consecutive order and the signatures subsequently trimmed to a predetermined page size. A printed piece such as a booklet or catalog may consist of one or several signatures, the latter held together by wire staple thread (as used in books) or wire plastic or other mechanical binding.

Flat-bed presses are made in various sizes and models including some that operate vertically. They do not have the speed of rotary production ranging approximately from 1500 or 2000 to 6000 impressions per hour depending upon size of sheet and nature of work, but they are far more flexible in terms of short and long run, different sizes of sheet and ability to handle a wide range of work and cost less to purchase and to operate. They are in general used in commercial printing plant and are capable of turning out a wide range of high-grade printing.

**Platen presses.** Small printed pieces such as envelope, postcards, stationery, circular and mail business forms are usually printed on platen presses—the familiar open and close or clamshell action type of press common to printing plants generally, particularly the smaller one and generally known as job press. They may be either hand or mechanically fed. Or, if required in large edition, the smaller piece may be printed on large sheets from two, four, eight or more identical type form, plate or set of plates, the sheets being later cut up into the individual piece. Often also such job may be ganged up that is several different jobs run together in a single form and printed on the same sheet to be subsequently cut apart.

**Special presses.** There are numerous variations on the types of press described above including presses designed for specific repetitive jobs or for a specific type of work, but the three described, rotary, flat-bed and platen are the types in widest use for general printing.

A specialized form of relief printing used for the printing of bag food wrappers (including bread wrapper), acetate, cellophane, waxed papers, metal foil and other material having surface not easily handled by ordinary letterpress method is aniline printing now more generally known as flexograph. The earlier name came from the fact that aniline dyes were (and are) used for pigment in the ink. The ink are liquid dry quickly and because of their use on paper and other substance that are directly in contact with food, must be odorless. Printing is done from flexible rubber plate carried on the printing cylinder of web-fed rotary. See **PRINTING PRESSES**.

## PLANOGRAPHIC PRINTING

Planographic printing is printing from an even surface—one in which the printing portion are neither above the nonprinting portion, as in letter press, nor below the nonprinting portion, as in intaglio.

A second distinguishing feature is that the process (lithography) by which all but a very small percentage of planographic printing is produced is based on the simple fact that grease and water will not mix.

Lithography, the invention possibly by accident of Alois Senefelder, dates only from 1798, nearly 350 years after Gutenberg. The term means literally stone writing or stone printing and for the first 100 years of its existence most lithography was just that.

**Direct lithography.** In the original process the copy to be printed (lettering, music or artwork) was either drawn by hand in reverse (right to left) on the surface of a slab of porous stone with a grease crayon or in greasy ink, or was transferred to the stone by rubbing, having first been drawn with a grease crayon on transfer paper having a special surface. The surface of the stone was then sponged with a solution of gum arabic in water to render the nonprinting portions receptive to moisture but repellent to greasy ink and the printing portions receptive to grease but repellent to moisture. The surface after being dampened with water was then rolled with the greasy ink which adhered only to the printing image; paper was laid over it and a print made by pressure.

This process known as direct lithography is little used commercially today but survives as a fine art process for the making of lithograph prints made from drawing or lettering of the manuscript on the stone and printed on a hand press.

**Indirect lithography.** The lithographic process however not only continues to flourish in the form of indirect lithography—offset lithography (offset for short). The heavy clumsy stones have been replaced with thin flexible metal plates usually of zinc or aluminum and usually with a fine grained surface (although nongrained plates are also in use); the slow top and tail flat-bed presses on which the stone had to be printed have been superseded by presses having a continuous rotary motion and photographic methods have almost entirely supplanted the old manual hand transfer method of putting the image on the plate.

Although offset has not as yet caught up with letterpress and rotogravure in the printing of metropolitan newspaper or nationally circulated magazine (experimental work toward that has been in progress for several years and is still in progress), it is being used for almost the entire range of commercial and advertising printing including window and counter display posters, road maps, packages and container labels and picture postcards. It is also being used for all general employment for book, jacket and for pull



which carry it to the delivery end of the press and deposit it on the sheet previously printed.

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 d e l

Offset p e s s e In o t u t i o n a n d p e r a t i g  
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I n t h l s l e t t p e s s t r e s a n f f e t  
 p r e m a b m d u p f e e v e r l p i n t i n g u i t s  
 T h e a p r e d g n d f o r f o r l o p c e p i t  
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A y e t h o w e r t c o n t i n u e s t o h o l d i t s p l c e  
 m a i n l y f r t h e r a n t h a t h a v i n g a n e l a s t i c m  
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 o n o t h e r u n e v e n s u f f e i n l d i m a n a s w o d  
 a n d l e a t h e T h i s i s t h e m c h a m i c a l l y i m p o s s i b l e  
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 w t h t h o n t i n u o u s r a r y m o s t m f i t h p r e d  
 w i t h a l b u m e n p l a t e s p a t c u l s l y m a y c o n t r i b u t e  
 t t h e l i f o f t h e p l a t b y e n a b l i n g t h e p h o t o -  
 g r a p h i c l y i m p r n t e d i m a g e t o s t a n d u p l o n g e r o n  
 t h e p r s t h a n i t w o u l d i f a d i r e c t c o n t a c t w i t h  
 t h p a p e r

D r y o f f s t p c e s s D r y f f e t a p r o c s w h i c h  
 e m p l y s t h f t p r i n c i p l b u t i n w h c h t h e p l a n o -  
 g a p h p i n t i n g p l a t e m r e p l a c e d w t h p l a t e  
 h a i n g t h m a g i n r e l i e f t h e b y e l i m i n a t i n g t h e  
 n e e d f o r t h w a t e r r i l l e r w h h o n o c a s o n h a v e  
 b e t h e o u r e f p o d u c t a d f i u l t i e A l t h o u g h  
 t h s p r i s n o t g e n e r a l l y a s a l a b l e i t h o l d  
 d e f i n i t e p o s s i b i l i t i e s f o r t h e f u t u

P l a n o g r a p h i c c o m p o s i t i o n O f f e t p r o d u t n  
 d i f f e r m l e t t e r p r e s p r o d u c t i o n n e e l e  
 s p e c t s b e a n i n g w i t h c o m p s t o n I f t y p e p r o d u c t  
 d u e d h o t m t l m c h e s s t o b e u e d t h e  
 t y p e t p d r e d a n d c o r r e t e d a s i n l e t t e r  
 g e s s a l t h e w h r e p r o f i s ( p r o o f s f o r p h o  
 g a p h r p r o d u c t ) t a k e T h e p r o f i s a r e  
 u a l l y p u l l e d a c o t e d o r d u l l c o t d p a p e r o n  
 p e i l t y p e o f p r o f p r s a n d r e a s n e a r l y  
 p e r f e c t m e h a n i l l y a t p o s s i b l e t o m a k e t h e m  
 I f o l d t y p e c m p t o n t b e i e d t h e c p y  
 t y p e d m m o t h s u f a e d w h i t e p a p e r e i t h e  
 o n t y p w r t r o n n e o f t h e s e a l c l d t y p e  
 o m p o i n m a h n e a n d t h t y p e d h e e t s a m u e d  
 i n t h m e m n n e r a r e p p r o o f s

I n t h n e x t s t a g e t h e p o r p r f o r t y p d s h e t  
 e c t u p a n d p a s t d o w t g t h e n u a l l y w t h  
 t h r e m e n t c r e f u l l y l a d o t h e t w i t h  
 b l y m t t e h e a d s n d c a p t n a n t h e r e c t p o s t  
 t n t h e v a e t c u p y n t h p t d p r o d u c t t h  
 r e u l t b i n g w h t i k o w n a s k e y l n l a y o u t  
 m r e f i t e n i n t h e t a d e a s a m c h a n i a l S u c h  
 m h a n l s m y n s t o f a n g l e p g e a p e a d  
 ( t w f a s l e p a g ) m f 4 8 12 16 o r m e  
 p g e a n g d n a f o r m a l i t p r s l i n e  
 d i s t r i b u t i o n i f d r a w n t h p r p e r s a l e m y b e  
 m o u t d i n p o s t n t h e m e c h n i c a l f o r l a g e  
 f r t h t h e y m a y b e p h t a p h e d d o w n ( r e d u e d )  
 t t h e p r p r m a d t h p h o t r p h i c p r i n t s  
 m n t e d i n p l a c i n t e d r s e p a t l n e n g a t i e s  
 m y b e m a d e S p a t b e o c u p e d b y h i s t o n e s  
 a r e t h u l e d f i o t h m h c l r a r e i n  
 d i c a t e d w t h r e c t a g l e o f b l a k p p u t t h e  
 e x c t i z e t h e h a l f t o e a r t o b e a n d m u n t d m  
 t h i e e a l p o t i o n s

M e a w h i l e i f p h t o g r p h w a h d r w n g r  
 o t h e r t o n a l t w o r k a t b e e d a u l l t r a t i o n  
 t h e y r e p h o t o g a p h e d s p r e l y t h r u g h t a h l f  
 t n e e n d h a l f t n e n g t m d e A l l  
 n g t s b o t h h a l f t o n e a n d l i m a c f u l l y



which carry it to the delivery end of the press and deposit it on the sheets previously printed.

The *pre* of this type are all known as cylinder *pre* and in most cases require two revolutions of the cylinder for each impression.

The sheets produced on flat-bed *pre* after being printed on both sides are folded by machine (or sometimes by hand) into signatures of 4, 8, 16, 32 or more pages, with pages in consecutive order and the signatures subsequently trimmed to a predetermined page size. A printed piece such as a booklet or catalog may consist of one or several signatures, the latter held together by wire staple thread (as used in books) or wire plastic or other mechanical binding.

Flat-bed presses are made in various sizes and models, including some that operate vertically. They do not have the speed of rotary production, ranging approximately from 1500 or 2000 to 6000 impressions per hour depending upon size of sheet and nature of work, but they are far more flexible in terms of short and long runs, different sizes of sheet and ability to handle a wide range of work and cost less to purchase and to operate. They are in general used in commercial printing plants and are capable of turning out a wide range of high-grade printing.

**Platen presses.** Small printed pieces such as envelopes, postcard, stationery, circular and mail bulletins are usually printed on platen *pre*—the familiar open and close or clamshell action type of *pre* common to printing plants. Especially particularly the smaller ones and generally known as *job pre*. They may be either hand or mechanically fed. Or if required in large edition, the smaller pieces may be printed on large sheets from two, four, eight or more identical type form plates or sets of plates, the sheets being later cut up into the individual piece. Often all such jobs may be ganged up, that is, several different jobs run together in a single form and printed on the same sheet to be subsequently cut apart.

**Special presses.** There are numerous variations on the types of press described above, including *pre* designed for specific repetitive jobs or for a specific type of work, but the three described rotary, flat-bed and platen are the type in wide use for general printing.

A specialized form of relief printing used for the printing of bags, food wrappers (including bread wrappers), acetate, cellophane, waxed paper, metal foil and other materials having surfaces not easily handled by ordinary letterpress method is aniline printing, now more generally known as flexography. The earlier name came from the fact that aniline dyes were (and are) used for pigment in the ink. The ink is liquid dries quickly, and because of their use on paper and other substances that are directly in contact with food must be odorless. Printing is done from flexible rubber plates carried on the printing cylinders of web-fed rotary. See **PRINTING PRESS**.

## PLANOGRAPHIC PRINTING

Planographic printing is printing from an even surface—one in which the printing portion are neither above the nonprinting portion as in letterpress nor below the nonprinting portion as in intaglio.

A second distinctive feature is that the process (lithography) by which all but a very small percentage of planographic printing is produced is based on the simple fact that grease and water will not mix.

Lithography, the invention possibly by accident of Alois Senefelder, dates only from 1798, nearly 350 years after Gutenberg. The term means literally, tone writing or tone printing, and for the first 100 years of its existence most lithography was just that.

**Direct lithography.** In the original process, the copy to be printed (lettering, music or artwork) was either drawn by hand in reverse (right to left) on the surface of a slab of porous stone with a grease crayon or in greasy ink, or was transferred to the stone by rubbing having first been drawn with a grease crayon on transfer paper having a special surface. The surface of the stone was then polished with a solution of gum arabic in water to render the nonprinting portions receptive to moisture but repellent to greasy ink, and the printing portions receptive to grease but repellent to moisture. The surface after being dampened with water was then rolled with the greasy ink which adhered only to the printing image. Paper was laid over it, and a print made by pressure.

This process known as direct lithography is little used commercially today but survives as a fine arts process for the making of lithograph print made from drawings or lettering done manually on the stone and printed on a hand *pre*.

**Indirect lithography.** The lithographic process, however, not only continues but flourishes in the form of indirect lithography—offset lithography (offset for short). The heavy, clumsy tone has been replaced with thin, flexible metal plates usually of zinc or aluminum and usually with a fine-grained surface (although nongrained plates are also in use). The low, top and flat-bed *pre*s on which the tones had to be printed have been superseded by *pre*s having a continuous rotary motion and photographic methods have almost entirely supplanted the old manual and hand transfer methods of putting the image on the plate.

Although offset has not as yet caught up with letterpress and rotogravure in the printing of metropolitan newspapers or nationally circulated magazines (experimental work toward that end has been in progress for several years and is still in progress), it is being used for almost the entire range of commercial and advertising printing, including window and counter displays, posters, road map packages and container labels and picture postcards. It is also being increasingly employed for book, book jacket and folder printing.



inspected on a light table and any pinholes or other imperfections are opaque'd out that is painted out with an opaque purple or black paint on the negative

**Planographic plates** In letterpress separate plates are made from the halftone negatives. In offset the halftone negatives and the line negatives of type and line art are assembled and taped down together with transparent gummed paper on a flat the negatives being positioned exactly as the type and pictorial matter are to appear in the finished product. The flat is a sheet of opaque paper usually colored on which a careful layout corresponding to that of the mechanical has been made and openings cut for the line and halftone negatives that are gummed down on it so that the paper partly masks out the nonprinting portions. In other words the flat is a composite negative made up of the negatives of all the material both typographic and pictorial that is to appear in the page spread or form as the case may be. In color work a flat is made for each color the flats being carefully registered one with another.

In all negative whether line or halftone the black and white values are reversed. Type proved in black ink on white paper for instance will appear white and transparent against an opaque black background in a negative.

**Preparation of plates** The flat is next laid over the flexible metal plate the surface of which has previously been coated with a light sensitive emulsion (pre sensitized plates are widely used in offset plants) and the two are locked together in a vacuum printing frame. These vacuum printing frames come in several forms a common one being similar to a large table with a steel framed glass top hinged on one side this top is raised the flat and plate inserted the top locked down and the air exhausted to ensure perfect contact between flat and plate. The image is then burned in with powerful lights which shine down through the negatives to the plate hardening the emulsion under the transparent lines and dots and rendering it insoluble in water. Nonprinting areas which are shielded by the opaque parts of the negatives are not affected by the action of the light and remain soluble.

After exposure which varies in length of time according to the nature of the work to be printed the flat and plate are removed from the printing frame and separated the face of the plate is coated with a special ink and the plate is then washed. The ink adheres to and brings out the printing image but washes away from the nonprinting areas carrying the emulsion with it and leaving the metal exposed. The printing image is then fixed and subject to final change or correction the plate is ready for the press.

When the flat has been completed but before it is put into the vacuum printing frame a photographic print is made from it usually on blueprint paper or its equivalent inexpensive photographic papers are used which can be developed in water. This print folded down into a signature with pages

in consecutive order is the equivalent of a final proof on which the author editor or production manager may within limits indicate his last corrections or mark his approval.

**Deep etch plates** The procedure described above applies to the making of albumen plates in which egg albumen is the vehicle that carries the light sensitive salts and which are widely used. For sharper contrast and greater detail in halftone however and particularly in the more exacting forms of color work the offset printer may make use of so-called deep-etch plates. For the photographic positives instead of negatives are used in the flats and the printing image is etched lightly below the surface of the plate thereby enabling the plate to carry more ink than is mechanically possible with albumen plates. Deep-etch plates are also more durable than albumen plates. The term deep in this connection is a misnomer actually the depth of etching is so slight that it can barely be felt with the fingernail and the plate is classified as planographic although in fact it is slightly intaglio.

A special form of deep etch plate the bimetal plate has come into use in recent years. The plates are composed of two metals one of which has a special affinity for water and the other for ink the former constituting the surface of the plate. One combination used is a wash of chrome over copper. In this the image is etched through the chrome to the copper thus taking advantage of the special qualities of the two metals. There is also a trimetal plate of chrome over copper backed up with steel or zinc.

For use in the flats for deep etched plates repro proofs are sometimes pulled on thin sheets of acetate on a special press which prints the image in exact register on both sides of the acetate to ensure opacity and these acetate sheets are used in the same way as photographic positives. Similarly the negatives or positives of type matter produced on the phototype setting or photocomposing machines may be used in the making of flats or of mechanicals. This eliminates the step involved in the making and photographing of repro proof.

**Place of offset lithography** It has been mentioned that in letterpress jobs running to very large editions may be printed from two four eight or more identical plates or sets of plates usually electrotypes with a corresponding reduction in press running time required. In offset the equivalent of this duplicate plate technique is obtained by means of the step and repeat machine whereby identical image precision spaced at fixed distances apart (both sideways and up and down) may be projected photographically onto the surface of a single large plate. With this device sets of large color plates carrying multiple image may be made which will register exactly plate to plate and image to image when the color are printed successively one over the other.

Of the three major printing processes—letter press offset and gravure—offset is by a considerable



review sections of *The New York Times* and certain pictorial sections of the catalogs issued by the large mail order houses are examples.)

Because of the time required for plate preparation and the relatively high initial costs, rotogravure is essentially a large scale production process best suited to work that runs into hundreds of thousands or millions of copies. Photogravure is virtually a hand process best suited to limited or deluxe editions in which reproductions of the finest quality are called for and is capable of beautiful effects. Sheet fed gravure which has been more highly developed and is more extensively used in England and on the Continent than here lies in between. It is suited to runs of moderate or medium length and its costs are not so high as to put it out of competition with fine quality letterpress work and with deep etch off set.

In reproducing photographs and tonal art work the gravure processes are capable of a depth and quality of tone superior to that of any other process but type reproduction suffers because all matter typographic or pictorial going on a rotogravure cylinder or a sheet fed gravure plate must be screened and readability of type may thereby be affected. For this reason type matter printed letterpress and gravure printed illustrations are some times used together in the same publication or advertising piece.

**Printing surfaces.** Without going into the technical details of screen and carbon tissue it may be said that the printing surface of a gravure cylinder or plate is used for most monochrome work (black and white or as often sepia and white) differs from the surface of a letterpress halftone in three particulars: (1) the dot composing the printing image are below the surface instead of in relief; (2) instead of varying in size or area as in a halftone the dots are all of the same area and (3) although the dots are of uniform size the surface wise they vary in depth this depth being greater or less according as the parts of the copy printed from them are respectively dark or light. For dark part (blacks or dark grays) in other words the tiny almost microscopic cup or wells carrying the ink will be deeper will hold more ink and consequently will apply more ink to the paper than will the shallower cups or wells which print the white or light gray portions. (Lest the terms cups and wells prove misleading it should be said that with the 150 line crossline screen used in most monochrome gravure work there are some 22,500 of them per square inch and that the depth of the deeper wells will not exceed 0.002 or 0.003 in.)

It is this ability of the gravure process to print from what is in effect an ink film of varying thickness in stead of from one of uniform thickness plus the ability of the deeper dot to apply more ink to the paper than is possible with other processes that accounts for the range of tonal values and the depth of tone characteristic of gravure-printed reproduction. Because of the amount of ink applied the dots on the darker portions frequently

spread and overlap one another on the paper obscuring the screen structure entirely and giving the effect of non screened continuous tone.

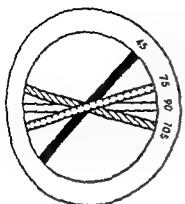
For color work in gravure a process of comparatively recent development is used the Dultgen or News Dultgen Halftone Intaglio Process in which by the use of a reverse halftone screen and two photographic positives dots are produced which vary in size as well as in depth. This combination of different sized dots as in relief halftone with different depth dots as in crossline-screen gravure while suited to monochrome work is used mostly for three and four color process printing where it gives added detail fidelity and color range to the reproduction.

**Printing operations.** In the printing operation the gravure cylinder or plate either rotates through a trough of almost liquid ink entirely unlike the thick tacky letterpress and offset inks or has the ink sprayed upon it the ink being held on the surface as well as in the etched cups. As the cylinder continues its rotation it passes under a thin flexible steel blade or scraper the doctor blade which extends the entire length of the cylinder bearing at an angle against it and wipes or scrapes the ink from the surface leaving it only in the etched cups. The blade thus does mechanically what the operator does manually in copperplate engraving. To minimize wear and the possible effect of small nicks the blade is made to oscillate lengthwise against the cylinder. After being wiped the cylinder rotates further and comes in contact with the paper which is held against it by an impression cylinder and printing takes place at that point.

Like the larger letterpress rotaries and offset presses a gravure press may be made up of several units which may be used either for the printing of additional pages or for color printing. Rotogravure press speeds for monochrome work run around 20,000 or more impressions per hour.

Aside from sheet as opposed to web feeding sheet fed gravure differs from rotogravure mainly in the fact that the printing image is usually etched into a thin flexible copper plate which is clamped around a printing cylinder in much the same manner as an offset plate. As compared with rotogravure it is a quality as distinguished from a large scale production process is much slower (up to 7,000 impressions per hour) will print on a wider range of stocks and rightly handled will produce results than can hardly be surpassed by any other process.

Sheet fed gravure is sometimes referred to as photogravure but this term is more generally and more correctly applied to the intaglio process mentioned earlier in which the plate is made and the printing done largely by manual method. Photogravure antedated both rotogravure and sheet fed gravure. In photogravure instead of a screen being used in plate making the plate is lightly covered with fine powderlike particles of a phthalum an acid resist which are floated on it by air in a



Yellow Blue Red Black

Some glass used for color printing

printed over an other Usually cre n angle are used to put the st ng ol r at an angle lea t noticeable to the eye wherea the we ker color is used at the angle mo t pronounced to the eye Thus the bla k pri t ng plate will be made with the dots run ng at an angle of 45 (as the normal bla k and hite h lfstone) and the yellow printing plate with the dots ve t ally and h r z n ally 90 Magenta and cyan plate will have the dots angles hwe n the ther tw at 75 and 105 (see Note on)

Where only thr e colors are used the cy n plate will pr b ly be at 45 the magenta at 75 and the blue at 105 Some pe at r may also prefer to use the yellow plate with a different halftone ruling to further less n any probl m with mo re colors. For exampl the yellow plate may be made with a 150-line screen and the other plates with the normal 133-l n

Angled prints A simplified method of screening is used (as for coarse screened newspaper) in the making of a fully balanced printing process. The yellow plate is made on photograph paper and the other plates are made on the same paper. The yellow plate is made on a different halftone ruling to further less n any probl m with mo re colors. For exampl the yellow plate may be made with a 150-line screen and the other plates with the normal 133-l n

Deficiencies of pigments In spite of the high quality of the pigments used in the printing process, there are still some deficiencies. The yellow plate is made on a different halftone ruling to further less n any probl m with mo re colors. For exampl the yellow plate may be made with a 150-line screen and the other plates with the normal 133-l n

compensate for this deficiency it has always been necessary to distribute the separation negatives by a certain amount of handwork such as darkening some areas and lightening others in order to come closer to a facsimile reproduction of the original with the inks at hand See COLOR PIGMENT

Color correction masks A new technique called masking has gradually replaced handwork to the point that most color work today is accomplished in this manner. A mask is a photographic image superimposed over another photographic image to alter its transmission characteristics. Masks may be used to change the contrast or to change the color balance of the original. An operator may choose from a number of masking methods which may involve one or more masks according to the final effect desired. Eastman Kodak Company and the Lithographic Technical Foundation have done a great deal of work on the use of masks in color reproduction.

Added color plates Occasionally it becomes necessary to use one or more extra color plates in addition to the standard four color process inks. This may be caused by a client's insistence upon a particular color match with that of his product or in cases where metallic effects are wanted for example bronze gold and silver Flat color backgrounds and borders are better handled by a separate print rather than by attempting to get the desired effect with process printing. Lithographers formerly used extra plates as a standard practice to enhance the appearance of the final reproduction. Light tints of pink blue and gray were commonly used. With improved technique these extra plates are not regularly employed as a part of the process work but added on for flat colors as required by all the processes.

Electronic scanning In 1950 the Time-Life Laboratory was working with Eastman Kodak Company introduced a new method of color scanning. The process involves a transparent and a transparently producing a set of four color separation negatives. Corrections are incorporated into the separations by the equivalent of electronic masks. Similar work has been announced by the group including the Acme Color Separator, the RCA Interchangeable Color Corrector and the Hunter Penro and Associates. These machines work on different principles but all are used in an attempt to speed up and improve the means of getting color balanced separations for process work. Although many specialists in the field have been produced the scanners are not yet widespread but not to be everywhere. No doubt further developments will make such methods more common wherever the majority of color work is being carried out as pointed out in the article.

Short run three color system Within the last few years Eastman has developed a simplified method of producing color reproductions on two color photographic prints and the standard

dots in each color are printed at different angles so that they fall one along side another and overlap to form combinations of many colors. Inks for process printing are transparent tones of red, blue and yellow. See **INK**. **PHOTOGRAPHIC COLOR**

**Separation negatives** Since three plates (four for four color process) must be obtained in order to print the proportionate parts of the different color, the first steps involve breaking down a colored original into three (or four) separate photographic images. These are termed separation negatives. In the process, the original colored object, painting, photograph or transparency is positioned before the lens of a large copying camera. Over the lens is placed an orange-red filter which allows light rays of that color only to pass; thus the red portions of the original are represented by tones of gray in the negative. In like manner, another piece of film is placed in the camera and another exposure made with a green filter over the lens. This negative now contains the green portion of the original. Again, a third piece of film is exposed through a deep blue filter; this negative giving a record of the blue areas in the original. (For four color process, a fourth separation must be made; see below.) Standard process filters used might be Wratten filters A25 (red), B58 (green) and C5-47 (blue).

Because the light transmitting ability of the filters as well as the sensitivity of the film varies with the color exposures must be regulated to obtain a set of separations which are properly balanced with each other. As an aid to the operator for correctly judging the result, a gray scale is photographed along with the original. This is a strip of paper or film with approximately ten steps in neutral shades of gray from black to white. In properly exposed and developed color separation negative, the gray tones will match in all three. Typical exposures might be for a red filter negative 20 sec., green filter negative 24 sec. and blue filter negative 30 sec. Actual exposures would depend upon the lighting, camera settings and kind of film used. A transmission densitometer may be used for more exact checking of results.

**Black printer** Although it is theoretically possible to print the full range of tones using only the three process color, most operators include a black printer to add detail and contrast to the printed reproduction. To make the separation negative for the black printer, the same general procedure is used for the other separation negatives, followed by a filter for this separation, the best choice (called split filter) is to use all three of the previous filters one at a time with exposures for each running from 50 to 100% of that used for each filter on the individual separations. Experience and judgment will determine the exact time. The object is to eliminate all but the major dark lines and shadows in the finished plate. A heavy black printing plate would interfere with clean, clear printing of the other colors.

Some operators prefer to use a single filter such as a Wratten No. 8 (yellow) or other choice depending upon the nature of the subject. A black printer separation negative made with a single filter usually requires more handwork for a satisfactory result. A third method of obtaining the separation for the black printer uses infrared film and a filter (Wratten No. 88A) which transmits infrared rays. This method will not give best results with all subjects and is usually restricted to painting and pastel drawings. Perhaps the first choice for most purposes is the split filter method mentioned.

**Screened positives** From each of the separation negatives a positive print must be made. A positive represents tonal values reversed from those in the negative, so the positive made from the red filter negative will represent all colors except red; in other words, minus red. White light minus red leaves blue-green; the color in which this positive should be printed. In process work, this color is called cyan. The green filter negative produces a positive which must be reproduced in minus green, which is bluish red or magenta. The blue filter negative in turn gives a positive which must be printed as minus blue or yellow. When the three positives are brought together, one over the other in exact alignment, the original subject is recreated.

The steps followed from separation negatives to the combined positive prints vary according to the particular graphic arts process used. In the case of photographic prints, these positives are prepared on transparent films which are dyed in the respective process colors and the images superimposed to give a color print. For offset lithography, the separation negatives are each photographed through a halftone screen to give a screened positive from which three deep-etch plates are made. These plates are printed one at a time, superimposed in register in the proper color for the final reproduction. In photoengraving, it would be necessary to make continuous tone positives from the separations by contact printing, then make halftone negatives in the camera, after which the photoengraving plates would be made. It is also possible in photoengraving to make the separation negatives with the halftone screen in the camera, thus obtaining screened separation negatives in the first step. Exposures run considerably longer with both filter and screen between the lighted original and the film. This is known as the direct method but does not permit as much control as the indirect method outlined above. For gravure, succeeding operations vary according to the exact system used. In conventional methods, a special screen is used at the time cylinders are prepared. See **PRINTING**, **PRINTING PLATE**.

**Screen angle** As each of the screened shots is made, it is necessary to change the angle of the screen ruling. This will allow an optimal blending of the different colored dots to give the effect of the colors in the original. It also prevents a moiré pattern which appears when one screened image is





inks simplification of routine automation of operations and careful control of all steps are characteristics of the process. This Kodak system does not supplant the normal systems but may be indicative of future developments in the field of color reproduction.

**Trapping** is a term used in color printing to refer to the ability of a surface to accept ink after an ink layer has already been deposited. In normal procedure one plate printing follows another with 6-12 hours between printing. If too much time elapses from first plate printing to last the ink from the first printings will become so dry and glazed that other colors will not stick or trap. In some cases plates are prepared to eliminate undercolors where possible in order to permit printing close to the paper instead of on top of other inks. This is especially true when plates are planned for high speed wet printing; for example in shadow areas some of the color is removed letting the black plate carry the bulk of the ink.

**Two plate halftones** Where less costly means are wanted to introduce color into halftones duotone duographs or duotypes may be employed. Duotypes are the simplest form consisting of two halftone plates for letterpress produced from a black and white original both of the plates being made from the same negative but etched differently. One plate is etched for detail and printed in a dark color whereas the other is etched for a flat effect and printed in a light color. In the printing operation the two plates are printed slightly out of register otherwise the darker color would tend to obliterate the lighter one because the screen angles are the same.

Duotones and duographs are similar because both are made from a black and white original. Two negatives are shot at different screen angles; the negative for the darker color is shot high and that for the lighter color low or flat. Duotones are printed in complementary colors (such as red and green) or in black and a color such as red blue or green. Duographs are printed in a dark and light tone of the same color. Duotones and duographs are not limited to the letterpress process as are duotypes. There is some confusion in the use of the terms; workers in the trade may use them without regard to the specific meaning.

**Fake color work** The manipulation of black and white reproduction to imitate the effect of process color work is called fake color work. Four separate negatives (all alike) may be worked on by hand to get approximate colors in the finished print. A widely used material in art and copy preparation for fake color work is the Bourge process developed by A. R. Bourges in which transparent films in a variety of colors and densities are used as overlays for the black and white art work. Even relatively unskilled workers can make effective use of the Bourges techniques in the hands of an experienced artist the quality of the results is good.

**Blow ups** Just as enlarged images are used in black and white so blow ups may be used in color

work particularly by the lithographer. After a set of corrected negatives and screened positives has been completed for an advertisement or mail folder these positives may be enlarged for a brochure window card or poster without repeating the steps of photographing through the process filters masking and screening. Of course by enlarging the screened positives the dot size (screen ruling) will become larger but the viewing distance for the larger image will be greater so the dot pattern will not be objectionable.

**Conversions** Color plate prepared for letterpress may be converted to offset by pulling proofs of the plates on cellophane or thin acetate film. These positive proofs may be used directly in making deep etch offset plate for same-size reproduction or they may be enlarged to obtain negatives for albumen type offset plates. Other systems of conversion from letterpress to offset which can be used for same size reproduction are the Brighttype and the *direct offset* (direct image) method. With these systems the entire color form would be converted type as well as halftones. The Brighttype method treats the form with a thin black lacquer after which the printing surface is polished with an eraser. The form is put on the bed of the special vertical copying camera and photographed to obtain a film for offset platemaking. The *direct offset* system pulls a proof of the letterpress form directly onto a special paper backed aluminum foil plate which after a light treatment is ready for the offset press.

**Flat color work** The most obvious method of putting color into printing is that of printing one or two headlines or display line in another color. To be more effective art work in the form of letter borders or backgrounds may be printed in one or more colors in addition to the black usually used for the main body of the text. Such color, termed flat colors, have no variation in tone (as in process work) but appear simply as an even film of ink on the paper. A separate form or plate is prepared for each color with the various impressions printed in register for the completed design. Very often the break for color is made with transparent overlay placed over the original with the required areas drawn on each overlay. The Benday method is used to break up the flat colors into patterns to give the impression of color tones. A flat tint plate is sometimes printed under a normal black and white halftone in add color where the expense of more elaborate handling is to be avoided.

**Posterizing** A seldom used but very pleasing presentation of a subject in flat colors is that known as posterizing. Here the black and white photograph is copied in three (sometimes four) steps on separate pieces of high contrast film. Exposures are regulated so the different tones of the original are interpreted as line negatives; the high contrast film prevents intermediate tones from appearing, tending to blend a intermediate gradation into one tone for each exposure. In a three step, a short exposure shows up only the highlight in the

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[KRB]

## Printing plate

A block r heet f m tal wood plast or ther  
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d u c t i o n o p r i n t g i m a g e s a n r e l i e f i n p l n o  
g r a p h c p r i n t g s u i a s l t h o g r p h y the p i t g  
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the n p r t i n g p o r t i o n I n t g l p r i n t n g (f r  
e m p l r t g r a v u ) the p t i n g i m g i i n c i s e d  
o t c h e d b e l o w the plate i f e

Plate f r p l a o g a p t c a d t a g h o p r i n t n g a e  
n i d r e d e p a t l y b l o w u d e r th n p e c t e  
h e a d g s

Wood engravings The m l e t form of p r i n t g  
plate w th wood g r a v i g w h h b l e d t  
h a r g i n t d i n C h n a a d t h e b e n u e d u  
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a p l E u o p i t a p p e a f i r s t i n the b l o c k b o o k s f  
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w d e l y e m p l j e d f b l l d m a g a z i n l l t r t n  
a d f m m r l w k a w l l u p t t h t u m f

the introduction of the photomechanical halftone in the early 1880s. It was from the cutting done in the making of a wood engraving that the term *cut* came to be applied to photoengravings generally. The industry prefers use of the terms *halftone* or *line engraving*. With the advent of the halftone which made possible the direct reproduction of photographs and other tonal copy the use of woodcuts rapidly declined and the process survives today mainly as a fine arts medium. Besides wood (usually in the form of end grain boxwood) artists and art students make use of linoleum, hard rubber and other workable materials which when mounted on blocks of the right height can be printed on a press along with standard type.

In making a wood engraving the artist first either draws his design on the face of the block or transfers it to the wood by rubbing from a drawing previously made on paper. Then with tools known as *gravers* or *burins* that resemble small gouges or chisels (a V-pointed graver is used for incising fine lines) he cuts away those parts of the block that are not to print, leaving the lines or areas of his design in relief. Shaded effects are obtained by incising fine lines either in parallel or crossing each other as in cross-hatching. If the print is to be in more than one color a separate block is cut for each color. The blocks are then printed successively and in register one with another.

Substantially this same process has been used for centuries in the making of Japanese prints; the effect of the colors being often enhanced by skillful manipulation of the inks and overlapping of tints.

**Steel and copperplate engraving.** Another type of engraving that is made by hand is the steel or copperplate engraving which in its original form dates back at least to the fifteenth century. This is an *intaglio* plate with the lines of the design cut into the face of the metal. In printing the plate is inked and the surface wiped, leaving the ink only in the incised lines from which it is transferred to paper by combined pressure and suction. The ink thus transferred when dry produces the raised effect seen in engraved stationery and formal announcements—an effect extensively imitated by the process known as *thermography*.

**Line engravings.** The immediate direct descendants of wood engravings are used in reproducing pen and ink drawing, scratchboard and pebbleboard designs and similar material in which the lines or areas of the copy are in black on (usually) a white surface. There are no intermediate grays in line copy as there are for example in a photograph. The copy is placed on a copyboard in front of the engraver; camera the distance between camera and copy is adjusted to bring the image to the specified size and an exposure is made. On the developed negative the black lines or areas of the copy are white and transparent; the whites of the copy both within and around the drawing are black and opaque.

In the usual platemaking procedure the emulsion of the negative is stripped from the backing and

squeegeed down right side up on a plate of glass (glass flat) along with other line negative. The flat is then placed in contact negative side down with a metal plate the surface of which has previously been coated with an emulsion sensitive to actinic (ultraviolet) light. Zinc is usually in sheets of 16 gage thickness; the metal used for most line engravings. Copper alloy 16 gage is used for engravings containing fine detail or intended for long runs. Magnesium has found increasing use in line work.

Flat and plate are next put into a photographic printing frame and exposed to a powerful light. This light passing through the white (transparent) lines of the negative transfers the emulsion underneath, rendering it insoluble in water where the face of the plate is shielded by the black (opaque) portions of the negative; the emulsion is not affected and remains soluble. The negative thus serves as a stencil admitting light only to what will eventually be the printing portions of the plate.

After exposure the face of the plate is rolled with a greasy ink or the plate is dipped in dye and washed under running water. The ink or dye adheres to the parts that have been acted upon by the light but is washed away along with the dissolving emulsion from the unaffected portion, thus bringing out the printing image which can now be inspected and at the same time leaving exposed the part of the metal which is later to be etched away. If necessary the image is treated with *topping powder* to make it acid resistant.

In the etching process the plate is given as many exposures to the acid (bites) as may be necessary to bring the nonprinting parts down to the proper depth (0.025–0.040 in. for newspaper plates). Nitric acid is the usual mordant if the metal is zinc; iron perchloride if it is copper. Open spaces between or around the lines in relief are deepened by routing and any dead metal is removed in the same way.

In the final stage the plate is cut up into smaller plates corresponding to the several negatives and the separate plates after proofing are delivered either in that form to be used on patent type or mounted type high on wood or metal bases ready to be inserted in a type form and printed with the type.

By using a photographic positive instead of a negative in making the plate or using a negative print as copy the blacks and whites of the copy may be reversed so that the lines of the copy come out white and the whites of the copy black. This type of plate is known as a *positive* or *reverse* line plate. Another type of reverse plate is obtained by turning or flopping the negative when it is placed on the glass flat, thereby reversing the copy from left to right and producing a mirror image.

**Benday plates.** The Benday (or Ben Day) process takes its name from its inventor, Benjamin Day, an American artist who brought it out about 1880. Essentially it is a method by which gradings or flat tone effects in the form of fine dot grain, stipple or other patterns can be applied mechanically to a

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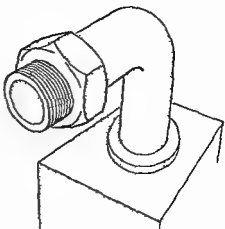


Fig 1 L d w g with h d g h t l d to  
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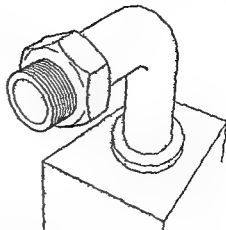
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th Be d y meth d is st l l u d f r carto ns i  
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a map and d agram u which sect ions r rea  
a t b g en d f e r e n t sh d in s The p t r r s of  
h h s o m 200 n l l ar a table a e c l f  
n the f e l B e n d a y c r e e n s — r e c t a n g l e s of h a d  
e n e d g l a t n r a n g i n a e f r m 6 by 8 to 16 by  
70 n

The h d n g o n t m y be ppl ed to th copy  
t s l t a g t e r p o t i e of the o p y (the lat  
t r l o r e r e s e e f f e c t ) r t o the plate th l a  
a m e d b e n g the t e h i q e m o t o m m n l y u d  
f r t h n the c o p y ( u a l l y n o u t n d r a w i n g ) i  
p h t p t d o n th m e t l a d t h p r t s n o t to r e  
c i e t h h a d i n g s e p a t i d v e ( s t p p e d o u t )  
w i t h g a m b g a y e l l w i s h v o u u b t n c e w h h  
w h n d r y i o f u b l e w a t e r The p t i e r n i s a p  
p l e d b y i k n g the B n d a y c r e e s l e c t e d w i t h a  
g r e e t k a d p i t n g i t c e the f a c e f i t h e p l t e  
l i n g b o t h g m b g e d a n d n g a m b g e d p r  
l The p l t e t o s t h w a h d d s l i v i n g the g a m  
b i g w h h c a r r i e s w a y w i t h i t the v e p i n t e d  
l i n e s o r d i s a n d l e a s the p t r e n o n l y n t h o s  
e a s w h e n w a t e r — r e a t h a h e e b e n i n  
d i e d o n t h c o p y o n o v e l a y b y the a r t s t  
T h d t r l e f t h e p t t r n a t h e n t e a t e d  
t h o p p i n g p w d r ( a c d r e a s t n t ) d t h p l a t e  
i s m e t h e d the s a m e w a y a s l i p l a t

O f t h m e t h o d e m p l y e d b y i t i s t p d u c  
B e d y e f f e c t s t h m t w d e l y u e d a r e the b r d s  
s h a s C r k e t ( i m p r e g n t e d w i t h o t w  
b l e p t i n s ) n d a h d n g s h e e t ( a t e c h n i q u e  
c o e d e d b y B F H u t c h o n a n d d e v o p e d m  
m o r a l l y b y A W B u g e ) i t h e f i t c a e t h  
r u m k s h d w g i n the f i c e of the  
b o d the p a t i s t h s t o b h a d d w i t h a  
l i q d d e l o p e r h h b n g o u t the p a t t e r n i n  
b l a c k W i t h d b l e t o b a d w h i c h a r r y the  
e q l a t f l g h t n d d k B e d a y p t i r n a  
d f e r e n t d e v e l p r i u s e d f r e c l p t i n i t  
t e r n m u t b e b l o t t d r e f t e y a e l u g h t o u t  
T h r l s a l d r w n g c o m p l e t e w t h B e n d y  
t i e t h d g F h n i l l u s t r t i d d a w  
e h g d t a l f m a h r y e a m g t h  
b r e t p o d u c d b y t h i s m e t h d

The h a d g s h e e t s e t t a n s p a r e n t s h e t n  
b h B e d y p a t t e r n l a v e b e e n p i n t e d W h n a n  
i s f e s h d e d the a s t i t a p t a f i t  
f m t h d d h t a d a p p l t o the  
m o t i c b e c m i n f l c i n s i e g r a l p a r t of t h  
c o p y ( F g 1 ) f l g h t g h t e f f e t m y b e p d u d  
b o w p s f i g h t i t l m r g i m p i n g  
e t p t r n w i t h a k l e q d i g i t s a r e l  
e d w t h the p a t t e r n p t e d i n p q e w h t f o r  
l a b i g f a r s g d w n ) b l e c k a t h s y  
f e r n g r y t y p e

A n d a t e f b o t h t h b o r d s d t h h d n g  
b e t w e e k q u e s i t h a t t h s h a d n g i s a p p l e d b y  
i t n t a d s e t i l n d h e n t l B h a r  
l o f a r r t h a n the r e g l B e n d a y p o c e s W i t h



F g 1 l i d w g w i t h h o d m h i v l d i  
m d c h a l f e f f e c t S c p n m d f m  
w h e l d w h t h o w S i d b l k w k d  
o g o l d w g ( A m M m f P h t p  
p h y )

b o t h the f i l u l t i s l m c o p y w h l m y b e  
p h o t o g r a p h e d d r c t l y w i t h t u f s h a l f t o n e  
s c e e n n d p o c e d i the s a m e w y a s n o r d  
n r y l n e p l a t e

A l t h o u g h t a s h a d i n g p r o c e s s m t i o n  
h o m b e m a d e h e r e o f t h T o n e - L i n e p r o c e s  
i t r o d e d b y E a t m a n K d a k h y w h c h l i n e r e p r o d u c t i o n m a y b m a d e f r o m p h t o g a p h s A c n i n  
u o u t o n e n e g u e h e l d i c o n t a t w h a t n a  
p e n t p r i t m h i t the m a n m o f h s e l e f  
p h t g r a p h y t h e l a s o f t h s p r o c e s

H a l f t o n e p l a t e s T h e s e p l t m a d e f m  
p h o t o g r a p h w h d r w i s a d o t h a r t w o r k  
d e i c o t u o t e e t a t n g f o m w h e  
t h u g h i n t e r m e d a t g r a y s t o b l k — a s d i s t i n  
g u i t e d f m the a l l b l a c k l i n s d a r e v f l i n e  
p y T o e p o d u ( o r m l a t e ) the e t o n e s u e  
m a d e o f t h h a l f t m s r e e n w h i c h n t s t a n d  
d f o r m c o t s o f t w p l t e o f g l a s s e c h u l e d  
( o r e t c h e d ) w t h f i n p a r a l l e l l i s a n d c m e n t e d  
i g t h e f a t f a c e s t h a t the l i n e o n n o  
the l i s a n o n the t e i g h t a g l s T h e l i n e s a r e  
o p q e t h s p a c s b e t w e e n t h m t r a n s p a r e n t a n d  
l s a n d p a c e s a w t h e a m w i d t h i n t h c e n  
g e e r a l l y u d f o b l a c k n d w h t w k t h e l e s  
t a l s o f 45 n d 135 w t h t h e s d s

The s f a s n s k n o w n b y the n u m b e f  
t h e f i t t h e i n a r m h F o the m e r a l m  
f l e t t p e s p n t n g t h i s r a n g e s f m 50 t 10  
s l e c t ( t h e s z t b e u e d d p e n d i m p m l y  
o n t h m t h n s f s u r f a c e of the p a p e n w h c h  
t h h a l f t o n i t b e n e d T h f o r w p p e  
w o r k c e n o f 50-65 a n d m e t u m e 85 l s a r e  
n o r m l w t h 65 the t e s t o t e m m n l y e d f o r  
E g l h o m h n e f i n h p p e s 85-100 l i n f o  
m e t e d p a p e 110 120 a d 133 l s d f u  
p e r f i n p p a n d p a l d l u w r k 150 ( F g  
2 ) I n g e n e r a l w i t h i n t h r a n g the f i n e t h  
r e e n the m o e f t f f i t h e r e p r d t o r o w l l b  
t the g o l p y c n s f u p t o 400 l n e  
m a d m o t i f y f o r s p e c i a l d p u p o s e

the introduction of the photomechanical halftone in the early 1880. It was from the cutting done in the making of a wood engraving that the term cut came to be applied to photoengravings generally. The industry prefers use of the terms halftone or line engraving. With the advent of the halftone which made possible the direct reproduction of photographs and other tonal copy, the use of woodcuts rapidly declined and the process survives today mainly as a fine arts medium. Besides wood (usually in the form of end grain boxwood) artists and art students make use of linoleum, hard rubber and other workable materials which when mounted on blocks of the right height can be printed on a press along with standard type.

In making a wood engraving the artist first either draws his design on the face of the block or transfers it to the wood by rubbing from a drawing previously made on paper. Then with tools known as gravers or burins that resemble small gouges or chisels (a V pointed graver is used for incising fine lines) he cuts away those parts of the block that are not to print, leaving the lines or areas of his design in relief. Shaded effect are obtained by incising fine lines either in parallel or crossing each other as in cross hatching. If the print is to be in more than one color a separate block is cut for each color. The blocks are then printed successively and in register one with another.

Substantially this same process has been used for centuries in the making of Japanese prints, the effect of the colors being often enhanced by skillful manipulation of the inks and overlapping of tints.

**Steel and copperplate engraving.** Another type of engraving that is made by hand is the steel or copperplate engraving which in its original form dates back at least to the fifteenth century. This is an intaglio plate with the lines of the design cut into the face of the metal. In printing the plate is inked and the surface wiped leaving the ink only in the incised lines from which it is transferred to paper by combined pressure and suction. The ink thus transferred when dry produces the raised effect seen in engraved stationery and formal announcements—an effect extensively imitated by the process known as thermography.

**Line engravings.** These the direct descendants of wood engravings are used in reproducing pen and ink drawings, scratchboard and pebbleboard designs and similar material in which the lines or areas of the copy are in black on (usually) a white surface. There are no intermediate grays in line copy as there are for example in a photograph. The copy is placed on a copyboard in front of the engraver's camera, the distance between camera and copy is adjusted to bring the image to the specified size and an exposure is made. On the developed negative the black lines or areas of the copy are white and transparent, the whites of the copy both within and around the drawing are black and opaque.

In the usual platemaking procedure the emulsion of the negative is stripped from the backing and

queegeed down right side up on a plate of glass (glass flat) along with other line negative. The flat is then placed in contact negative side down with a metal plate the surface of which has previously been coated with an emulsion sensitive to actinic (ultraviolet) light. Zinc usually in sheets of 16 gage thickness is the metal used for most line engravings; copper also 16 gage is used for engravings containing fine detail or intended for long runs. Magnesium has found increasing use in line work.

Flat and plate are next put into a photographic printing frame and exposed to a powerful light. This light passing through the white (transparent) lines of the negative transmits the emulsion underneath rendering it insoluble in water, where the face of the plate is shielded by the black (opaque) portions of the negative, the emulsion is not affected and remains soluble. The negative thus serves as a stencil admitting light only to what will eventually be the printing portions of the plate.

After exposure the face of the plate is rolled with a grease ink or the plate is dipped in dye and washed under running water. The ink or dye adheres to the parts that have been acted upon by the light but is washed away along with the dissolving emulsion from the unaffected portion, thus bringing out the printing image which can now be inspected and at the same time leaving exposed the parts of the metal which are later to be etched away. If necessary the image is treated with topping powder to make it acid resistant.

In the etching process the plate is given as many exposures to the acid (bites) as may be necessary to bring the nonprinting parts down to the proper depth (0.025–0.040 in. for new paper plates). Nitric acid is the usual mordant if the metal is zinc, iron perchloride if it is copper. Open spaces between or around the lines in relief are deepened by routing and any dead metal is removed in the same way.

In the final stage the plate is cut up into smaller plates corresponding to the several negatives and the separate plate after proofing are delivered either in that form to be used on patent bases or mounted type high on wood or metal bases ready to be inserted in a type form and printed with the type.

By using a photographic positive instead of a negative in making the plate or using a negative print as copy, the blacks and whites of the copy may be reversed so that the lines of the copy come out white and the whites of the copy black. This type of plate is known as a positive or reverse line plate. Another type of reverse plate is obtained by turning or flopping the negative when it is placed on the glass flat, thereby reversing the copy from left to right and producing a mirror image.

**Benday plates.** The Benday (or Ben Day) process takes its name from its inventor Benjamin Day, an American artist who brought it out about 1880. Essentially it is a method by which hatching or flat tone effects in the form of line dot grain, stipple or other pattern can be applied mechanically to a

tal) h g d f o e a h lor This s d n so th t  
th d i s f th lo col r when pr ted will tend  
to lie l g i d o a ther ot on top of ne an  
ther thereby v o d i m i e o patt r n g an i  
bl g the eve t h l n d th m i to eco dary an i  
t r t r o l s Where blue a d yell w dots f r u  
: n e fall de by ide th eye ees them a a  
gree a d th m y h a blue gre m a y llow  
green acc r d i g t predom in ce f bl yell w  
d t s mul t i l s d s d yellow bl d t pr duce  
a m a d blue and ed t p odu v o l e t s r  
p r p l e s h i l e t r t u y col uch as certa n b wns  
te g d d by the ble d i of three and m  
me f r col o s Here ag in th eff t depends n  
opt cal ill on

Ph toe gr is diff m t which se ee angles  
g r e the m t f f t e r e l t s b t a g e on e p a  
r t u n of 30 b t w n e l o r In what s prob bly  
th m t i d e l y sed m m b at on the ac een s  
set at 40 f r the bl ck (the gl at which the  
scre l e s are i a t n t i e bl ) t 15 f the  
bl t 15 f th r d n d t 90 fo the y ll w  
t h b e n g th l l o n s p i c u l a r col i n t  
t a b l y f f t e d by th h f s e p a t o n

E t i o e h n d f n h g d n m t l y by reet h  
m g a d ( th n l m i t ) by b n h g i s g r a l l y  
red d o n t o f o l o r plate t l i g h t o d k e n  
p n o f a p l t e or plate a d to b r i n the col  
m p r p e r b a n

Ser l method a e i a b l y by wh ch l r  
p l e r m y b m s a d w u t h u o f col o e r  
t i n g a i or l m y b e f k d f r m b l c k  
a d h i e o p y but results re seldom a g d a s  
as the e g a t e s a e u s e d

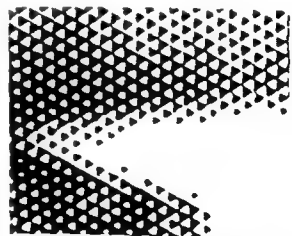
Fl l r p r d t u o m y l o b o m p l i s h d  
by th th r e e l p c e s s w h c h t h l r u s e d  
a r y e l l w r e d ( m g n t ) n d b l u e d a k e t h a n  
t h y n o f f l p r I t a s c l m e d by  
w i m e p h t o e g r e r t h a t u c l o l e c e n  
b e o b t a d b y t h p r o c b t f u r c o l i g  
e r l y l f e d p r t l y to t h o t h t h e b l a k  
a l b l f p i n t g t y p the leg b i l i t y f  
t h i s w e k e e d by p n t g t i c l r

T a c t l plates r f m a y k i n d a d e m b i  
t T h y m a s f a m p l b e m a d f r o m o p y  
p r e p e d i n t h t c o l o s t h t e t o b e r e p o  
d d u h a s p a i n t i n g d o n t n e s o f g y  
d r d W h e t w m p l m e t a r y l n b e  
o u d h s y e l l r a g e d a d a k h l e  
s p r i g l y w i d e a g f l o r f f t m y b e  
l i a r d b y s k l l l b l e n d g f i t h e l o r M o n o  
t h r o m t p y h p h o t g p h f a e a p e  
m b e r p o d u c e d i t w o l r b y m k i n g t w o  
n a t i e s e u t h c o t r t a d d e t a i l p n t i  
b l k the she a f i t g r y n g a t e t p p l y  
c o l l e s a d p r i n t m b l The l t r i e r w i l l b e  
m f u t h a 30 d i f f e r e a c e e a g l e S c h  
p l t r s a e k n m d t n o r d g r p h T t  
b l a k t n t p l a t ( m e t a l o h r d r u b b e r w t h  
t s o l d o r e c n e d s a b e b t w t h d e g  
t m e p l t f t y p e f l d r w i g r e  
u d t m d t p i t t y p e I l l u t a t i n a s t e n  
m m m g n d n g

Electronic engravers Plates for letterp e  
p r i n t n g c a b e p r o d u c e d b y e l e c t o n i c e n g r a v e r s  
g n e a l l y f o m t o a l c o p y a n d w i t h o u t t h e u s  
o f c a m e a s a d p l a t e m a k n g u p m t U e o f t h i s  
d e i h s d e l o p e d a p i d l y n e e t h e 1930s T h e  
m c h i n o f f e r e d c o m m c i a l l y p d u e h a l f t e s  
r y s g f m 50 t o 200 l i n e / i n n p l a t i c z n c  
m a g n e s m a l m u m o p p e r r b a s s a c c o d n g  
t t h e m a n f a c t u r r M a c h m f t h t y p e i n c l e  
t t h e F a i c h l d S c a n a g r a v e r a n A m e r i c a n p r o d c t  
t h e K l i h o g r a p h d e c l p e d b y R H e l l o f K i e l  
G r m a y t h e E l o r a m a p r d c e d i n S w i t z e r l a n d  
a n d t h e H s s i g e n g e r i n e n t d b y O H a n g  
T h e s e m a c h i n e s p o d u c e h a l f t m d i s s i m i l a r t  
t h e t a d i t a l e g r a m s d o t s T h e H s i g m a  
c h e c b u d t o p r o d u a n u n u s u a l t r a n g l a r  
d t p a t t r n a d d i t i o n t t h e u s u a l d t s t u c t u r e  
( F i g 4 )

O n t h e F a i c h l d S c a a g r a e w h i c h w a s t h e  
p e r A m e r c n m c h i n e t h e c o p y u a l l y a  
g l o s y p h o t o g r a p h c p i n t b u n d r n d a s m a l l  
h o o n t l y l n d r a t t h e r i g h t f t h e m a h n e  
M o u n t d a b o t h i s a n e l e t r i c e y e s n e r O n  
t h l e f t f t h e m h i m t h e s a m e h a f t i s a s i m  
i l a r y l n d e r o u n d w h c h i s b n d a t h i n s h e e t  
f p l a s t c A b o m t h i s i s t y l u s t h e i t f w h i c h  
l c t i c l l y f e t e d i n p t e h o u s n g b e  
t w e e n t h e c y l i d e a r e t h e n t r o l f t h m a c h m  
w h i c h g o r n t h e d p t h o f t h b t e m a d e b y t h e  
t y l s

I n o p e r a t i o n t h c y l i n d r o l e t h s a n  
n r i c k s p t h e b l k g a y s a n d w h i t e o f t h e  
p y a n d c o t t e m i n t l t r c a l i m p u l s f  
v a r y g t e s t y w h h r e t r n s m i t t e d t o t h e t y  
l s T h t u n b i t s n t o t h e f a c e o f t h e p l a t  
m l a s t h e b i t e s n t o t h p c b t w e e n t h e  
d t a a m e t a l h l f t o W h i t e a e a s r e c  
d e e p b t w h i c h l s m a l l d t b l a k e s a  
a s h a l l o w b t w h i c h l v l g d o t w t h t h g r y  
f a l l i n g n b t w e e O n t h e 65 l m c h n e w h c h



F i g 4 E l s o l l y g d h l f e d t T h s  
h i g h l e i g d d t l f n l f t p l t h o w s b t h  
d t t c t h d w o d h i g h l i g h t e d t h e  
p c l H g t g l d t ( A m M m f  
P h l g p h y )



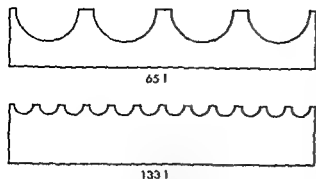


Fig 2 Cross section of photoengraved halftones showing the effect of dots and the variations in spacing when different screen sizes are used (American Photoengraving Association)

The first mechanically ruled cross line screen was produced by F. E. Ives in 1885. Prior to that however in 1880 the famous Shantytown halftone, the first halftone printed in an American newspaper, had appeared in the *New York Daily Graphic*. This was made by S. H. Horgan using a one way screen. Ruled and etched screens were introduced commercially in the middle 1880 by M. and L. Levy.

In the making of a halftone the screen is placed in the camera directly in front of the film or photographic plate but not in contact with it. The space between known as the screen distance varies with the nature of the copy but ranges generally from  $\frac{1}{8}$  to  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. Copy is placed on a copyboard in front of the camera and an exposure is made.

Of the various explanations that have been made of the effect of the screen the most acceptable would seem to be a combination of the pinhole lens and light diffraction theories originally advanced by Ives and M. Levy respectively. Essentially and nontechnically the network of lines in the screen breaks up the image into dots of different sizes (Fig. 3). White areas in the copy reflect the most light through lens and screen; black areas the least; gray areas in proportion to their lightness or darkness of tone. When light from the white areas passes through the screen each of the tiny openings is believed to serve as a pinhole lens, causing the rays to diffuse and to register on the negative as relatively large black dots. In white areas such as highlights the dots will overlap producing on the negative the effect of very fine white dots on a black background. Similarly areas that are black on the copy register on the negative as pinpoint black dots and the grays register as dots of varying intermediate size.

In the platemaking stage the dots serve the same purpose as the opaque black portions of the negative in line engraving: holding the emulsion and keeping it soluble so that it dissolves when the plate is washed, exposing the metal for subsequent etching. The surface of a halftone plate thus consists of thousands of tiny dots of different sizes which the eye, not being sufficiently microscopical to see them as dots, blends into the darks, mediums

and lights of the original copy. The halftone effect in other words is actually an optical illusion.

Besides the regular network type screens numerous special screens are available. These include the Kodak contact screen on film which is placed in contact with the negative and which has found more use in offset than in letterpress printing, grain and wavy line screens and the double-textured Grafatone screen which combines two textures such as 65 with 85 line and 100 with 120.

Halftone plates may be finished in several ways. Most widely used is the square (rectangular) halftone common to all forms of printing. Others are the silhouette or outline much used in magazine advertising in which the dots are removed from the background leaving the figure or product silhouetted against the white of the paper; the highlight or dropout, a favorite for fashion advertising in newspapers in which the dots are removed from the highlights by either manual or photographic methods; and the vignette, whole or partial in which one or more edges are feathered out or tapered into irregular background. Where type and halftone or line and halftone are combined on the same plate the result is known as a combination plate.

**Color plates.** Relief plates for color printing are more fully considered elsewhere (see PRINTING IN COLOR). For full color reproduction of paintings, color photographs and colored products such as fruits or fancy merchandise when not direct the four color process is generally used. In this by means of photographic filter color separation negatives are made for each of the three primary colors and for black. From these in turn are made halftone plates which carry the yellow, red and blue values with the black plate applying definition and shading.

In making the plates a rotatable circular screen is used by means of which the screen angle (angle of the lines of the screen with the horizon



Fig 3 Graphic legend of dots of photoengraved halftone plate showing dot formation (American Museum of Photography)

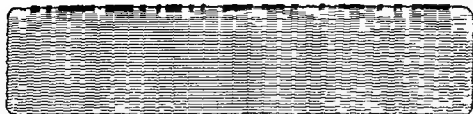


Fig 6 Lith o b o p t

method invented in 1798 by A. Senefelder and based on the mutual antipathy (repulsion) of grease and water. It was originally carried out with the first fired secondary rock found in Soleb fen, Bavaria, in the form of compact homogeneous slabs consisting chiefly of calcium carbonate.

**Lithography.** Litho stone is almost perfectly adapted for lithography because of its porosity and natural tendency to absorb both grease and water. An illustration drawn with a greasy ink or crayon penetrates into the surface of the stone as does a dilute solution of nitric acid and gum arabic (Fig 6).

The drawing or illustration forms the actual print image on the surface of the stone. The ink acts as an etch and converts the bare surfaces of the stone into calcium nitrate, a chemical surface which remains moderately damp when moisture is added.

When the stone bearing the drawing is moistened with thin aqueous solution of gum arabic and the etched surface is immediately rolled up with greasy lithographic ink, the ink adheres to the greasy drawing and is repelled by the moist (nonprinting) surface of the stone. This principle is stabilized by the application of all lithographic printing to the basic application of all lithography from the earliest to the present.

The method calls for a certain proportion of the quality of the reproduction depends upon the skill of the artist. The reproduction is possible with the method we have in the mind of C. R. and the lithographic printing process of American lithography is dated in 1857 by C. Currier and J. M. Le.

Despite its utility as a printing medium, lithography has not advanced rapidly. It is a heavy and cumbersome process that produces a large amount of waste. In 1800, the first lithographic printing was done on a sheet of paper. In 1801, the first lithographic printing was done on a sheet of paper. In 1801, the first lithographic printing was done on a sheet of paper.

The process was patented in 1831 by J. C. Thompson and E. M. R. f. wh t a tod y

known as dry offset or letterpress transfer printing was the real beginning of offset printing. Lithographic application of the offset principle can be credited to W. Rubel who constructed in 1904 a press incorporating the synchronously rotating cylinders together with two reservoirs for automatically feeding fountain solution and printing ink to the lithographic plate attached to the first cylinder. The second cylinder bears a flexible rubber blanket to which the ink impression was transferred for retransfer to a sheet of paper attached to the third cylinder.

Litho metals have little porosity and some measure must be provided for retaining a film of moisture on their surface. This is done by mechanically grinding on one side of the plate with abrasives the grain having the dual function of acting as a moisture reservoir and providing a tooth or anchor for the lithographic image on the ground surface (Fig 7).

Modern litho plates today are produced by photolithography, an early method was the albumen process, introduced in 1855 by A. L. Poitevin. It requires the ground surface to be sensitized with an aqueous solution of bichromated gelatin. This coating becomes insoluble (tanned) through the action of light.

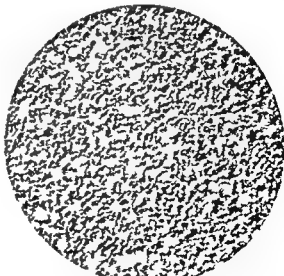


Fig 7 Lith plate X50

is made for new paper use there are 65 uches dots to each peripheral inch. At the same time the scanner and stylus which are attached to grooved rollers and begin their action over the inner ends of their respective cylinders move gradually outward  $\frac{1}{2}$  in at each revolution of the cylinders producing the equivalent of a plate made with 65 line green plates up to 11 by 10 in in size can be turned out in 30 min or less. Trimmed to the desired size with shears or a cutter the plate may be mounted type high on blocks to print with type or may be attached with two way adhesive to blank spaces left for them on the face of a stereotype plate.

Line copy such as cartoons may also be run on the Scanograver but will come off the machine with a background of fine black dots over the face of the plate similar to the dots of a Benday pattern.

Closely related to the electronic engraving machines are the electronic scanners of Printing Developments Inc (American) and Hunter Penrose (British). In the Printing Developments scanner four color separation negatives without halftone screen are made simultaneously from flexible transparent color copy such as Anscochrome and Ektachrome films. The Hunter Penrose equipment makes separation negatives one at a time and scans only flat or reflective copy.

**Duplicate plates** These as the name implies are duplicate of original plates or type pages. They are used for long runs as in the case of metropolitan newspapers and nationally circulated magazines for jobs where the originals must be preserved for future use for jobs to be run in multiple (printed from two or more identical plates or sets of plates) and when identical plate must be sent to several printers or publishers for use at the same time.

The oldest form of duplicate plate is the stereotype used mostly by newspapers. In this process the type page is locked firmly in a heavy metal frame called a chase and a thick sheet of paper mache forced down upon it by mechanical or hydraulic pressure as to form a mold or mat (short for matrix) of the page. From this a plate is cast in type metal which duplicates the printing surface of the original page. If the plate is intended for use on a large rotary press it will be semicylindrical in shape; if for use on a smaller tubular rotary press cylindrical; and if intended to print with type on a flat bed press flat. The stereotyping process is quick relatively inexpensive and especially suited for use by new papers publishing several editions in which the front page and certain inside pages must be remade from issue to issue.

When identical advertisements are to be run on the same date in a number of newspapers (as many as 400 sometimes in the case of national advertisers) they are usually sent to the paper in the form of stereotype mat. From the flat cast are made which are inserted in the type page.

A more durable plate used for large circulation magazines for much book work and for large edi-

tion advertising pieces is the electrotype. For this the plate or page to be duplicated is molded under heavy pressure in wax, tenaplate lead or vinylite and the mold suspended in a bath of copper sulfate where it is connected to the negative pole of an electric generator. A bar usually of copper metal is suspended in the solution and is connected with the positive pole of the generator. When the current is turned on a thin coating of copper is deposited electrolytically on the face of the mold forming a shell which later is backed up with type metal to give the plate the strength and rigidity needed on the press. Electrotypes are usually made flat and if intended for use on rotary presses are curved by mechanical pressure. Flat electrotype to be mounted on patent base are normally made 11 points (0.152 in) thick (Fig 5).

For extremely long runs requiring maximum plate durability electrotypes are faced with nickel or chromium. Where the former is used the plate are sometimes mistakenly referred to as steel faced electrotypes. Nickel besides being more durable is more resistant than copper to the chemicals found in certain printing inks.

Electrotypes cost more and take longer to make than stereotypes but the process gives a more durable better quality plate suitable for use on smooth finish papers and capable of exact duplication of fine screen halftones and process color plates.

Duplicate plates of vulcanized rubber and of plastic have found increasing use in recent years in book work and many forms of advertising and commercial printing. Advantages include light weight ease of handling on the press and lower shipping cost. A still more recent development the DuPont flexible photopolymer plastic plate introduced in 1959 has lightness of weight durability and speed of production to recommend it and promises promise of wide utility in the future [L.W.S.]

**Planographic plates** Printing plate of the planographic type are intended for lithography. a



Fig 5 Remolding type shell from vinylite mold. Shell will be backed up with metal to give rigidity for press (R. D. M. Nally)

ing It t d ngu hed by du bility Collotype  
g t g m ch l w th If et luhography a d  
abo t 5000 : th max m m mbr of good im  
pre : n th t c n normally b e pe ted from  
coll t pe pl te

Intaglio plates These plat s d ffer from the  
plan gr phic var tv that the pr ti g image is  
m ed b l w th f e of a met l plate a d e  
p od ed by t o ma processe engraving a d  
brin

Th t t ms a e often confu ed and used  
syn ymo ly b t eng ng properly efc s t  
m nual crption f desig s on s faces w th the  
d of ga s or pe l cutt g implements The  
t rm etch g de ot in on f relief or intaglio  
d e g s int met l fce e ther by chem cal

elect lyt act on and with ut us g e g s  
tool fa y k d Etch ga d e g avi g somet mes  
ar comb ed it a ngle pr cedur such the  
exc t n a f o called dryp int tchu g

I tagl gr ing i the lde t of all platemak  
ing m thod Copper w u d f r the p po in  
149 b th G rma art st Albr ht D er C ppe  
pl t engra g a fa red m d um for ocial  
req tea el d n p o l t t u o c y w d d  
t t t d f w k eq i g o ly a l m t ed  
n mbe f opes

A th f r m f i tagl e gra ng is th t pe  
f rmed te l p l te m thod or ginated i the  
l n ete nth t r y St el gr i g are more  
d bl than tho e x c t ed o copper b t the  
result re n t a d l cat because of the h rde  
t e f e l Th m t imp ta t app l c t i o of  
nt gl e gr ng f b n k o t s d e c u t e  
d f the p d t n f o m m c a l stat i ery in  
the f r m f b n l t t e heads

Copper n w p pul e metal f r e t h g a d  
a f i t u d for th t n p e i 1520 by the  
D i t r i s t L a v L e y d e I t a p e f r e d f o  
e t h g p o e d u e u c h d y p o i t a d q u i t t  
l l r t i e g g s h a m e z z t i n t

Ph t t g l etch g d o m d m a u a l m e t h d s  
f g a g n d e t c h g I t w a s t d u e d i n 1826  
by J A p c e , w h o t h e e b y i n s t e d p h o t e n g a  
g a n d p n e e d t h e b a p n p l e f p h o t o  
m e t h c s

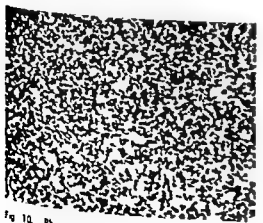


Fig 10. Ph og vu g f m i

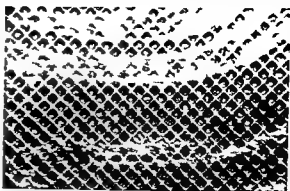


Fig 11 R t g p t g f

There ar two main meth ds f ph to t g l o  
etch ng phot ora e a d r t gra ure With the  
first det l and t v l e e p r t r a y e d by a  
r i n d t g r a i n n t h e f e o f c o p p e p l t e  
(Fig 10) R t o g u r m e c h n e d v e s n o f  
p h t g a v u e w h i h t h a d i s p l c e d e x c e p t f o r  
w o r k f t h e m h t q l i t y I t t i l e s a r u l e d  
e e f o t n l t n o f t n e l s T h e s c r e e n  
d i s t h e t g l e t h n t e l l (d p r e s i o n s)  
f u n f r m s b t f r y n g d p t h a o r d n g t o  
t h t n l s f t h e i g l (F i 11)

B t h p h o t g (1877) a d o t g r u r e  
(1890) w e e t e d b y m e m a n t h e B h e m a n  
t t a d p h t m e h n l e r h e r k A l i c  
R t o g e c n b e d e i t h o n f i a t c p p e r  
p l a t e p p e u r f e d c y l i n d e a d m p r e  
s s n b e t k e f r m t h e e t h e d s u f a c e s o  
e t h s h e e t f d r t r y (w e b f e d) p e e s T h e  
g r e t e t a p p l i t n f t h p m s s i s i p u b l i c a t i o n  
t n p i t m d g m e t l i g e r y l o n g  
p e s r u f m i l l i o n o f m p e o n

T h n l y m m n d e m a t s b e t w e n p h o t o  
g r a r e n d t a t h t b t h m e t h o d s u s e  
h a n d c o t t e p i t m a d n t i l p h o t o  
r e s t n t h e f r m f b l y n l b l z e d m t m  
m a g s p o d d b y e p o o f t h p t m n  
c a r b t u s e (p g m e n t p p ) s e s t e d w t h a  
c t g o f b h o m t d g l t m p e g n t d w t h a  
r e d l r d p e m t E t h g f t h e i m a g e s o n t h e  
p p f p f m d w t h i s f f e r e  
c h l d e l t f p m s l y w e k e r s t e g t h  
(43-35 B a m )

I k t g f p h t p l t s s f e q e t l y p e  
f r m e d b y h d l r t o a u e t h u r f a c e o f t h e  
t c h d y l d f l d d w t h f l u d n k f h g h  
l t l t y (d r y g p w ) d t h e e c s n k  
w p d f m t h e u s e f t h e c y l i d w t h a  
f l a b l e t l d t b l a d b e f t h e n k d c y l d e r  
b u g h t n t a t w t h t h w e b f p a p e  
t l g a t h g h p e d t h u g h a t a y g r e  
p r S P R I N T I N G P R E S S [ J S M E ]

B b l g p h y H M C a t w i g h t n d R M k a y  
R o t g t e 19 6 L F l d a d J S M e r t l e  
M o d n P h o t g g 1948 J S M e r t l e E t l  
t u o f R t g t 1957 J S M e r t l e a n d G L  
M n P h t m h c s d P t g 1957 L W  
S i p l y A H l f C t y J C o l 1951 L W S p l e y



Fig 8 Preparation of galleys for the making of an offset plate. Here a film of type is being stripped into position with film of pictures (Road McNelly)

After exposure under a line or halftone negative the plate is covered with a thin film of greasy developing ink to promote visibility of the exposed image and impart an ink attracting surface. The image on the inked plate is developed with tap water which washes away the soluble (unexposed) portions of the albumen coating and leaves the inked image firmly attached to the grained surface of the metal.

Of great importance to lithographers are photo-composing (top and repeat) machines originated in 1906 by W. C. Huebner. They facilitate accurate placement of images in any predetermined position on the surface of sensitized litho plate thus rendering possible duplicate (repeat) prints which are the practical equivalent of electrotypes in a type form for letterpress printing.

When many thousands of impressions are required deep etch plates are likely to be used. Produced in a number of ways, such plates entail use of line and halftone positives and differ from the albumen or surface variety in that the printing image is brought into direct contact with the metal by a method of image transfer carried out chemically during the operation of platemaking.

Still greater durability is achieved with bimetallic plate, dating from experiments conducted in 1853 in France by H. Garnier and A. Salmon. Bimetallic plates consist of two different metals laminated together as an integral sheet and based on the supposition that the metal having greater affinity for litho ink.

Certain plates of this category are trimetallic—made up of three different metal or alloys, such as zinc (or tinless steel), copper and chromium. They are more expensive than the bimetallic art-

ety. A popular combination for the latter type is copper and chromium. The image areas are of copper because this metal is readily rendered ink receptive whereas chromium is considered to be more water receptive and therefore forms the non-printing areas.

More economical (although less durable) litho surfaces are plastic and pre-ensitized plate. They are simpler to make and were originally intended for small offset press (office duplicators) typified by Multilith and Rotaprint machines.

Plastic plates have smooth surface and are properly represented by articles having support of resin impregnated paper or apportioned sheet of cellulose esters. Some of the surfaces are adapted for direct images (typesetting, drawing) while others are of the photolitho type and sensitized either with bichromate, silver or ferric salts or diazo compound.

Pre-ensitized plates have a sensitizer incorporated in the surface coating by the manufacturer and are ready for exposure by the user. A common form of such plate is a thin sheet of aluminum coated with a diazo compound contained in a solution of polyvinyl alcohol. Diazo compound are the preferred sensitizer because the plate has longer keeping quality (shelf life) than do surfaces sensitized with chromate.

Collotype plates are a somewhat different litho surface used in the collotype or photogelatin process. Invented in 1855 by Poitevin, a collotype plate consists of a thin aluminum sheet having a delicate surface grain and sensitized with a coating of gelatin and potassium bichromate.

The plates are used with line and continuous tone negative. The exposed surface is flooded with running water to remove all visible traces of bichromate from the tanned gelatin image. During this a unique reticulation takes place in the exposed gelatin coating and serves as a grain or tone translation medium for reproducing the detail and gradation of the original subject (Fig 9).

Collotype is the most beautiful of all photolith methods; the final result is an ink impression with the appearance of a photograph. The plate is kept moist with a glycerin-water mixture during print-

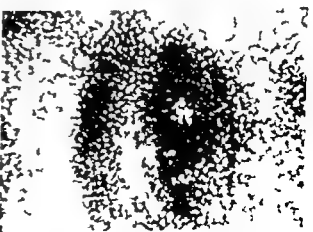


Fig 9 Collotype galathea

ing. It is ot d t gu hied by du abil ty Coll type  
p ung m b low r th n off t lthogr phy a d  
about 5000; the max m m u m b r of go d im  
pres o th t c n m ally be expected fr m a  
coll t p pl t

Intaglio plates The e pl tes d ff from the  
pl g aph c v riety in that th pr t g image is  
in ed below th rfa e of a met l pl te a d r  
prod ced f tw ma proce = engra i g and  
et hing

The t term a e often c nf d and ued  
m m u ly but e r p op ly fers to  
m l i p t o of de igns n u fa s with th  
d of gr ra r r e c t i c t i n g i m p l e m e n t Th  
t r m e t h g d e n t e i n c of r l i f r n t g l  
d e v o n s i n t m e t a l r f e e t h e b y h e m i c a l r  
e l e c t r i c a t i and w i t m i n g n g r a i n g  
t o o l f a n y k d E t h i g a n d e g r a v i n g m e t m e  
e m b i e d n t o a i n g l e p r o c e d r e s u c h a s t h e  
e n c a v t n f o c a l l d d r y p o t e t h g s

l a l i n g a g i t h e o l d e s t f l l p l t e m a k  
n g m t h o d C o p p e r w a u d i r t h e p u p e  
l i t b y t h G e r m a n m t A l b r h t D e C o p p e r  
p l t e e r a i g i s f a o r d m d m f o s i l  
r e q t e s i n c l d g p e r n a l t t o y w d d g  
i t t s a d f i n e w k e q u i g n l y a l i m i t e d  
n u m b e r o f p

A n t h f r m o f n t a g l i n e n g r a i m i t h a t p e  
f r m e d t e e l p l t e m e t h d r i i a t e d n t h e  
e s l t e e n t h c n t u r y S t e e l n g i n g s a r m r e  
d b l e t h t h e e c t e d o c p p e r b t h  
e r u l t e n t d i c a t e b e c a u o f t h a d e  
n m f t e l T h e m o t m p t a r t a p p l a t o n f  
l a g l e n g r a g s f o b a k i and t i s  
a n d f r t h e p r d c t i o n f m m e a l t u o n e r y n  
t h e f m l b u s l e t t e h e a d

C o p p e r i n w p p l a r m e t l f e t c h g a d  
t f i t u s e d f r t h a t p r p o n 1520 b y t h e  
D h t t c l a s a n L e y d e n l i t i p f e r d f o  
e t h i n g p r o c d e s h d r y p t a n d a q u t i n t  
l a r t i c e n g n g c h s m e z z i t

P h i t g l t h i n g d m e d m a n a l m e t h d s  
f g a g a d e t c h m f t w a n t o d u e d n 1826  
h j n v e p c e w h t h r b y n e n t e d p h t o g r a  
g a d p e e r e d t h e b p r i c p l f p h t o  
t u r c h a n c a



Fig 11 R i g p i g r f c

There are tw main m t h d o f p h o t n t a h o  
e t c h i n g p h o t g r a r e a n d r o t g r a r e. W i t h t h e  
f i t d t i l a n d t n a l u e s a r e p r t a y e d b y a  
r s i n o u d t g r a n o t h r f c f c p p r p l a t e  
(F i g 10) R o t g a u r e a m c h a i e d e r s i o n o f  
p h t g r a n w h i c h i t h a d p l a c e d e x c e p t f r  
w o k o f t h e h i g h t q u i l t y i t u t i l i z e a l e d  
s e r e n f o r t n s l a t i o n o f t h e l T h e c e e n  
d i d s t h n t a g l o e t c h m n t c e l l (d e p r s o n )  
f u i f m z b u t o f v y n g d e p t h c o o d i n g t o  
t h t n l u o f t h e i g n a l (F 11)

B t h p h t o g e (1877) a d t o g r a u e  
(1890) w e e t e d b y n e m a t h B o h e m u  
a u s t a n d p h o t m e h c a l e e t h r k K l c  
H t o g a u e c n b e d o e i t h e r o f l a t c o p p e r  
p l a t o c p p e r s u f a c d c y l n d s a d i m p r e s  
a n s a n b e t a k n f m t h e e t c h d s u r f a e s n  
e t h r s h e e t f e d r t a y (w b f e d) p s e s T h e  
g e a t e t p l i a t n o f t h p r e s s i n g b l i c a  
t i o n p n t i n g a d a i n m e n t a l i g e r y i n g  
p r e s r u o f m i l l n f i m p r e o n s

The only m m o d e n m t b e t w e n p h o t o  
g r a u r e a n d r o t g r a u r e e t h t b o t h m t h d s u e  
l n e a d c o n t u o s t o n e p t i m d e n t a l p h o t o  
m s t n t h f r m f v b l y n s l u b l i z e d n g t v  
i m a g e s p o d u e d b y x p r e f t h e p o t e s o n  
c a b t u e (p g m e t p p r) t i z e d w i t h  
c o t i o f b c h r m t e d g e l a t i n m p e o n a t e d w i t h a  
e o l o f e d p i g m e t E t h i n g f t h e i m a g s n t h  
c o p p e f e s p f m d w i t h i o f f e r i c  
c h l i d e s o l u t i o n f p r g s e l y w e k t r e g t h  
(43-35 Baume)

I n k i n g f p h t o g a u p l a t e s f e q e n t l y p e  
f r m d b y h d l r o t g r a u e t h f a e o f t h  
e t c h d y l n d r s f l o o d e d w i t h a f l i d i k f h i g h  
l a t l t y (d y g p w e r) a d t l e e c e s i n k i  
w p e d f m t h s f a m o f t h c y l i n d e r w i t h  
f l e x i b l e f e d t b l a d b e f t h e k d c v l d e  
i b g h t t e t a t w i t h t h w b o f p p  
t i n g a t h i g h p e e d t h r o g h r t a y g r e  
p e s S P R I N T I N G P R I N T I N G P R E S S [J S I E]  
B b l g a p h y H M C a r t w g h t a n d R M a k y  
R t g v u 1956 L F l d r a d J S M i l e  
H d n P h t o g a g 1948 J S M i l E l u  
t f R t o g e 1957 J S M e r t l a d G L  
M P h t m c h n d P t i g 1957 L W  
S p l e y A H H C t y f C o l o 1951 L W S p l e y

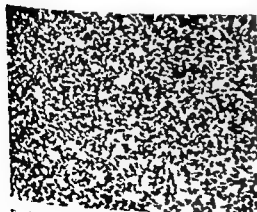


Fig 10 Photogravure a f m i

*The Photomechanical Halftone* 1958 V Strauss  
*Lithographers Manual* 1958 B E Tory  
*Photo lithography* 1953

## Printing press

Several kinds of printing presses are used in the three methods of reproduction most widely employed in the graphic arts namely relief (letterpress) printing planographic printing (as in lithography) and intaglio printing (steel and copperplate engraving and gravure)

Letterpress presses print from a relief surface such as printers cast type (Fig 1a)

In lithography (both stone lithography the original hand method and offset lithography the modern photographic method) the printing is from a planographic (even) surface using the principle of affinity of ink and grease for printing areas and the repellent qualities of water and grease for the nonprinting areas of the lithographic printing plate. Stone lithography prints from the stone directly on the paper sheet. On offset lithographic presses the printing is from a metal plate to a cylinder surfaced with a rubber blanket which offsets the impression to the sheet of paper tin or other substance to be printed. In dry offset a relief etched printing plate 0.025 in deep is used to print the impression on the rubber blanket which offsets the impression to the sheet in regular offset. The relief etched plate eliminates the need for water repellent facilities (hence the name dry offset). In direct lithography a thin metal plate is wrapped around a cylinder (the same as in offset and dry offset) and the impression is printed directly to the sheet instead of being offset to a rubber blanket and then to the paper. Coarse grade work such as posters is generally produced by this process (Fig 1b).

In intaglio the printing is from ink deposited below the plate surface (Fig 1c) as in hand engraved or etched images in copperplate printing steel die stamping or photogravure (sheet printing production) and rotogravure (web printing production from rolls of paper stock).

**Printing plates.** Printing plate requirements vary for printing presses in each of the three basic methods of printing. Letterpresses print from original relief plates or forms consisting of type photoengravings or both in either line plates or halftones locked in a chase or from reproductive plates such as stereotypes electrotypes rubber or plastic

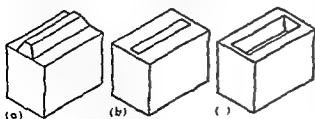


Fig 1 Surfaces used in printing (a) Relief above the surface (b) Planographic on the surface (c) Intaglio below the surface

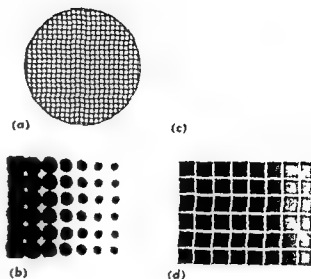


Fig 2 Printing plate screens (a) Halftone screen with black lines and white dots (b) Halftone screen with variable dot areas and equal ink film thickness (c) Rotogravure screen with white lines and black dots (d) Rotogravure screen with equal dot areas and variable ink film thickness

printing plates made from the original type and photoengraved plates. The line plate photoengraving consists of variable line thicknesses and shapes for tonal valuations in an illustration. The halftone photoengraving reproduces tonal pictures or continuous tone photographs through a system of graduated dots in relief (Fig 2a and b).

The halftone process produces halftone plates in which the gradation of tone in the photograph is reproduced by a system of graduated dots produced by a screen in which a network of fine lines that cross each other at right angles is placed between the camera lens and the negative. The halftone printing plate surface consists of dots of various sizes uniformly placed and is capable of reproducing the highlights and shadows and all the gradations of tone in a continuous tone photograph. The screen used to make the plate is designated by a number which indicates the number of lines (both ways) to 1 in. Screen numbers vary but the most frequently used are 65 85 100 120 133 and 150 lines/in in both directions. In a 65 line screen plate there are  $65 \times 65$  or 4225 halftone dots/in<sup>2</sup>. In a 150 line screen there are  $150 \times 150$  or 22 500 dots/in. In relief and lithographic printing the halftone dot uses the principle of variable dot areas and equal ink film thickness to reproduce a halftone illustration. In letterpress printing this ink film thickness is approximately 0.0002 in. In offset lithography the ink film thickness is approximately 0.0001 in.

Photogravure and rotogravure halftones in monochrome (black sepia or other single color) are normally reproduced in dots of equal area and uniform placement but varying in the depth to which they are etched in the copper plate or cylinder. Gradation of tonal values is controlled by the amount of ink deposited on the sheet from each

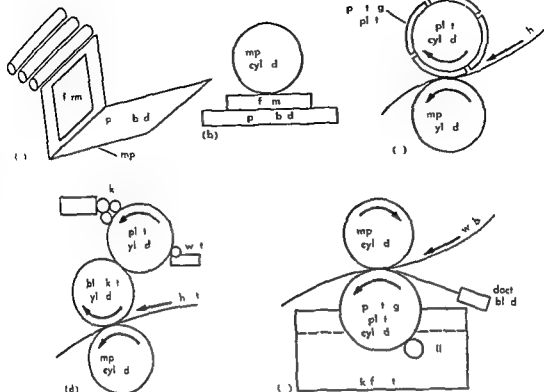


Fig 3. (a) Platen (b) Flatbed (c) Relief (letterpress) presses (d) Offset lithography (e) Rotogravure.

the dot, this in turn being governed by the depth of the line or dot. The process thus uses the principle of equal distance and a black film thickness. The crease line are retained in the printing plate or cylinder, the dots being etched out between them and serve as support for the ink. The ink is then transferred to the paper by the pressure of the rollers. The screen is usually made of mesh from work in grain is known as the screen and consists of white line with space between the lines. The mesh is wider than the line. For each space of composition there is a definite amount of ink which is widely distributed. The ink is then transferred to the paper by the pressure of the rollers. The screen is usually made of mesh from work in grain is known as the screen and consists of white line with space between the lines. For each space of composition there is a definite amount of ink which is widely distributed. The ink is then transferred to the paper by the pressure of the rollers.

The screen process is repeated on different lengths of film. The ink is then transferred to the paper by the pressure of the rollers. The screen is usually made of mesh from work in grain is known as the screen and consists of white line with space between the lines. For each space of composition there is a definite amount of ink which is widely distributed. The ink is then transferred to the paper by the pressure of the rollers.

and onto the sheet which is in contact with the screen during the operation. The ink screen process (sometimes called planographic process) is similar to the mimeograph process used in the production of letters where the message is typed on a typewriter though a stencil and the message is printed on a message machine. The ink is then stretched across the machine cylinder (Fig 3a, b and c).

**Relief (letterpress) presses** Relief printing presses are made of three main types: (1) the platen press in which the printing form and the ink bed (platen) are flat, the platen is (2) the flatbed press in which the printing form is flat and the ink bed is curved surface and (3) the rotary press in which the printing form is a curved plate form and the ink bed is a curved cylinder (two curved plates).

The main advantage of the relief printing process is that it is the simplest and the most economical. The ink is then stretched across the machine cylinder. The screen is usually made of mesh from work in grain is known as the screen and consists of white line with space between the lines. For each space of composition there is a definite amount of ink which is widely distributed. The ink is then transferred to the paper by the pressure of the rollers.



a continuous line the width of which is controlled by the size of the impression cylinder. Rotary presses with two curved surfaces of the same size print the form in a continuous line thinner than that of the flat bed presses. Rotary presses with large impression cylinders printing four and five colors from smaller plate cylinders have a wider pitch line (width of line printed at one time) than the smaller cylinders.

**Platen presses** These presses are also known as job presses because of the ease of hand feeding the sheet to the press. They have been used for many years in educational training activities. The platen press is used for small size jobs that can be hand fed, as well as for heavy card stock jobs that cannot be fed into a press which uses a curved cylinder to pull the impression.

High speed platen presses have automatic mechanical feeders built into the press. Such feeders have increased the production of this type of press and put it in competition with the automatic jobbers (small cylinder presses). The addition of the automatic feeder has made it possible to produce heavy card stock jobs at relatively high speeds.

**Flat bed presses** Large flat bed presses are also known as cylinder presses, and the smaller sizes are automatic job cylinder presses. The automatic job cylinder presses with high speed operation successfully compete with the slower speed large size cylinder presses. On most job cylinder presses the flat bed is in a horizontal position to provide for sliding the form on the press for lock up and production. Some job cylinder presses have their beds in a vertical position in the press. These require locked up forms to be lifted into the upright position and snapped into place by a spring lock.

Cylinder presses are both large and small are generally of two revolution design: one revolution to print the sheet and one revolution to deliver the sheet. These presses have small size cylinder circumferences as compared with one revolution presses. The one revolution large circumference cylinder presses print and deliver the sheets in one revolution of the cylinder.

Automatic job cylinder presses have built in mechanical feeders and pile deliveries. They are similar in feeding, inking mechanism, and delivery to the large cylinder presses. They run smaller size sheets at greater press speeds. They are now being built for one and two-color printing.

Flat bed or large cylinder presses are built to produce one and two colors on one side of the sheet. Automatic feeding and pile-sheet deliveries are used on the press.

Perfecting presses are built to print on both sides of the sheet from two forms each time the sheet passes through the press. The presses are similar to the two-color flat bed cylinder presses but print both sides of the sheet in stead of two colors on one side of the sheet. They are used chiefly for book manufacturing printing where each sheet is completed in one pass through the press.

**Rotary presses** Rotary presses print from curved plates against a cylinder or curved bed.

Sheet fed rotary presses automatically feed and print sheets which are delivered in a pile. These presses print from one to four and five colors at one time on one side of the sheet. Some presses print all four or five plate cylinders against one large impression cylinder, whereas other four and five color rotary sheet fed presses print each plate cylinder against one individual impression cylinder, thereby using one plate cylinder and one impression (packing) cylinder for each color.

In web fed rotary presses the paper is fed to the press from a continuous paper roll or web. Operation of the presses is similar to that of the sheet fed rotary press in plate and packing cylinder operation. They print multiple colors on one or both sides of the paper web. When the press is used in book work or for new paper production they deliver the job completely folded into signatures of 4, 8, 16, or 32 pages.

Heat set inks are used on high speed web fed rotary presses which produce at speeds of up to 1000 running ft/min. At the speed when four colors are being printed it is necessary for the ink to be completely dry when the web passes through the folding delivery of the press. Paper webs printed with heat set inks are passed through heated ovens to dry the ink.

**Aniline presses** The new name for aniline printing is flexography. This method uses relief printing generally with rubber plate which are fastened to a cylinder and inked by a single inking roller. The inking roller is supplied with aniline ink from two rollers in the ink fountain. The amount of ink supplied to the form roller is controlled by the spacing of the roller in the ink fountain. The presses generally are of the roll feed web type and are run roll to roll, rewinding the web. They may also be run roll to sheet delivery. The cut off operation is meantime adjustable to various sizes. The presses print multiple colors and the ink dries quickly which permits rewinding the web if desired.

**Special purpose presses** Hard packing web presses are used for commercial production. The presses are made ready in the same manner as the other presses used in the letterpress printing industry using a hard packing in the packing cylinder. This gives a superior printed product with a clear sharp impression.

New paper web presses use new print paper and soft blanket impression cylinder. They do not use heat set inks or heated ovens in production. New print paper with its alluring qualities and new ink dries satisfactorily at new paper production speed.

Proof presses are used for pulling all kinds of proofs used in printing production such as galley proof of type for first reading and page proof for final reading. Reproduction proof for photographic reproduction of type for lithographic, topographic or other processes of printing are also

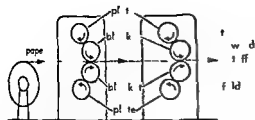


Fig 4 Offset p r c t g p W b th ded f  
r n g w o l n b th d f e w b

pl d n p r f p e s Pro f p e s are likewise  
ed t pull p oof ac t te heets f r p o s t e s  
d r e e p t c h o f f t d r o t g r e p l t e m k i n g o p e r a l

M l t r g r p s p o d c t i s r e l e f ( l e t t e  
p r e s ) m e t h o d w h h u e s r e l e f a s t s h r t t y p e  
0095 n h g h a d f f e n t e d f r o m t y p h i g h  
p r i n t e r t y p ( 0918 ) T h h r t t y p i d i t  
t h e g r o e f t h M u l t r g r p h g m e n t ( c y l d e r  
t h l d t h e t y p e ) a d t h c y l d s i n n p l c e d i n  
t h M l t r g r p h m c h n w h e t h t y p e m k e d  
a n d t h e m p i t a k e = t h e h e t a t s f e d  
t h g h t h e p h t w e t h e t y p e a d t h p l e n  
( P l e n t h n a m e g e t h e r b b l l e a g i n t  
b h i t h m p e i n i p u l l e d ) E l e t o t y p e n d  
r u b b e p l t e 0095 h g h r e a l e d f r p r t  
i g n t h m c h e

S p e c i b u l i t t e p r e s a r d g n d t p r i n t  
p e c h y p r o d c t h o f f c o r m l b l t g s  
d t h e l k S p l p l a t a t t y p r u b b s t e o  
t p e s e l e t t y p a r d t h e s p r  
W h n r u b b r p r i t g p l t e s a b u e d x e l  
e l y i t i p o b l t o b l d r l l f d w e b p r s  
t h p t u g y l d e o f r b l e c m f e e  
n i t g f h a l l h l l T w o h l l h l l m k e  
m p l t e p l t e y l d r f u b b p l t t h m  
p r p l l e d g a t a m t h t l m p e s  
a d j t b l t h e r u d m t e s f t h p l t  
y l d e e d s t h p t g T h i k i g m h  
n m l d j t a l l t h i p l t y l d e  
a s T h d f f t c r m f e p l t e y l d r s  
p d h l h e e t e s T h e p r e t f f d  
j u m t d i b l h t e s

Offset presses Th p l g p h m t h o d o f  
p t g i n l d e v o d t n f f e t l t h g p h  
p e s s e w e l l n d e t l t h g r p h p e e  
( F g 3 d )

S h e e t f e d f f t p r e a r h e t h m t l p t  
g p l t 00 i t h k w h h t h w k m g  
d e v l p e s T h e p l t e s m d f i l m  
n m p p e m h t f t w m t l f  
t r o m t p l t h h e d f r h g h q l s  
k P p e p l t e s a m e t m e d m l l  
l t T h p l t i t e d d t h p l t  
l t w t h l m p e a d i d m p e d b y p g  
d t f t h m h n m w h t h p t g  
p t f t h p t f r m t l t k e d b y  
p x A r e t h i k g m h m w h t h  
p x f t h e p l t i k e d T h p l t  
p t i k e d i m g o n t h f f t h b

b e b l a n k e t f t e n e d t t h b l a n k e t c y l d e i n t h e  
p s T h e p r i n t e d i m g e i s t h e n o f f s e t o r i n s  
f e r r e d t o t h e s h e e t a s t p s e s t h r g h t h p e s s  
b y p r e s u r e a p p l i e d t o t h e i m p n c y l d e r i n  
t h p r e s s A f t e r t h p r i n t e d t h e e t p a s s e d o n  
t h e d e l e y o f t h e p e s s A u t o m a t c f e e d e r a r e  
d i n t h e p e r a t i n f t h h e e t f e d f i s s e t p e s s  
D e c i r f f e t s h e e t f e d p e s s e s u e d i n t h i n  
d t y a r y s h e e t c f r m 10 b y 14 t o 52 b y 76  
i n T w o t h e a d f o u r c o l o r p r e s s e s a c a l  
a i l b l e

O f f e t p e r i e t g p r e s p r i n t b o t h s i d e o f t h e  
s h e e t a t o n e t i m e u n g t h e b l a n k e t t o b l a n k t  
m e t h o d f t a n f e r i n t h e p r i n t e d m p r i o n t o  
t h e h e e t T h s m e t h o d c l m i n a t e s t h e i m p e i n  
y l i n d e r n d e s t h e b l a k e t o f t h p p o t e d e  
o f t h e s h e e t a s t h e i m p e o n c y l i n d r t o t a n f e  
t h e i m a g e t h e h e e t R o l l i d f i f e t w e b p r e s  
m e t i m e s u e t h s b l a k e t t o b l k e t m t h o d o f  
p n t g b t h d s o f t h e w b ( F i g 4 )

R o l l f e e d i t w e b p e s s a r u d i t h e s a m e  
m a r e r l e t t p r w e b p e s s m e p r e  
p m o l l t o o l l ( r e w d ) o t h e r s r o l l t o h e e t o  
r l l t o f i d e r w h e r e c o m p l e t e f o l d e d s i g n a t r e o f  
a m u l t i p l e n m b o f p g a r d e e d

M l t i p l e c o l o f f e t p e s e s e f t w o d e g s  
S m e t r n s f e v e l c o l o r s f t h e p r i n t e d i m a g  
t h r u b b b l a n k t a d t h e t n f e t h e m l t  
l o m g e t t h e h t n o n e i m p e s o O t h e r  
t a f e t h e p r i n t e d i m a g e t o t h e h e e t n e c o l a t  
a t u m e d n c o l o r p e e ( F g 5 )

D r y o f f e t p e s s o p e t e n t h e s a m m n n e a  
w t f f t p T h e p l a s d a e t h e d 0095  
n r l i e f i t e a d f b e g p l a g r p h ( o n  
t h e r f e ) T h e w a t m e c h n m s m d b a c k  
f m t h e p l t c t a c t n d m a d e n p a t i e d  
g t h p t g p a t o n T h i k g m e h a i m  
p a d t h e s m e m a r s f w t f i s e t  
e e p t t h t h e o l l e r r q u m o m d e l i e t e t  
t g t p e v n t h r i n k i g t h p i t i g p a r t  
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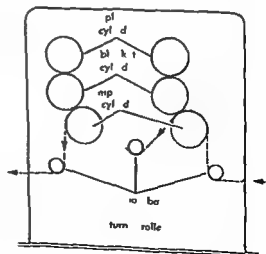


Fig 5 Offset r t y p p f p t g m l p l  
l W b th e a d d f r u g r w l  
a d f w b

a continuous line the width of which is controlled by the size of the impression cylinder. Rotary presses with two curved surfaces of the same size print the form in a continuous line thinner than that of the flat bed presses. Rotary presses with large impression cylinders printing four and five colors from smaller plate cylinders have a wider pitch line (width of line printed at one time) than the smaller cylinders.

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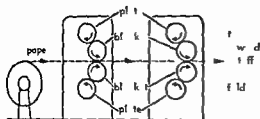


Fig 4 Off t p r f t g p W b the d d f  
r v g t w l r s n both d f w b

p lled proof pre es Proof pr es are l k w e  
used t p l l proof n ac tate she ts f r p o u s  
u deep t h ff et nd t rav re pl temak ng op-  
e t n

Al tigraph pre s p d c t s a relief (letter  
pre) meth d wh h e e l e f e t h o r t type  
0095 i high s d f l e r n t e d from type high  
p n t e t y p of 0.18 Th h r t t y p i s l d n t o  
the g r o o e f the M u l t i g r a p h s e g m e n t ( c y l n d r  
t h l d t h t y p ) a d the s l d e r ) then p l c e d n  
the M l t i g r a p h m a c h w h r e l e t y p i s k e d  
d the i m p r e s s i o n s t a k n the h e e t i t i s f d  
th g h the p r e b t w e e t h t y p a n d the p l t e n  
(P l t n i the n a m e n t h r u b b e r r l l e r g a t  
h h h i m p r e s s n i s p l l e d ) E l t r y p e s  
r u b b e r p l t 0095 n h g h a r e l o u e d f p r t  
g n t h m h

S p a l b u l t u e r p e s a d e g n e d to p r n t  
p e c i a l l y p r o d u c t s u h f i c e s o m s l a b e l s t a g s  
a n d t h l k e S p e l p l t e s o f t y p u b b r s t e c o  
p e s r e l e c t t y p e a e u d o n t h e p r e e s  
W h n r u b b e r p l t i g p l t e a n b e e d e x c l u  
s i v e l y p o s s i b l e to b l d a r l l e d w e b p e s  
t h a p t g e l d e r o f v a r i a b l e r u n m f r n c  
i n g f h l f h l l T w o h l f h l l m k e a  
m p l t p l t l d f r r b b e p l a t e t h e m  
n i s p u l l e d g a t m o t h t e e l m p e  
c y l d The i m p r e s s i o n s d e p t n  
a d j u s t b l t h a r i d a m t e s f i t h p l a t e  
l d e d n t h e p l t Th k g m e h a  
n m l a d j t a b l e t t h v m p l a t e s l d e r  
e s Th d f f r e t c i r m f r p l a t e c y l d r s  
p o s s i b l e a r a b l e h e e t Th p e u t o f f d  
i m i d l a b l h e e t

Offset presses Th p l n g r a p h s m e t h d o f  
p r i n g l d e s p r d t f f t i t h g r a p h  
p r e s s e s l l d e t l t h g p l p e s e  
(F g 3 d)

Sheet fed f t p h t h n m t a l p n t  
e p l t 002 i t h k w h h t h w r k i m g e  
d e s i g n e d Th p l t e s m f f z n c l u m i  
m p p e m h r a t f t m a l f  
l e t m l p l a t w h h a u e d f h g h q a l t  
k p e p l t e s r e m t m e u d m l l  
m p e s Th p l a t s f t n d n d the p l a t e  
l a n d e r t h l m p a d d a m p n e d b p n g  
n d t h w t r m e c h a m w l e t h e p n t n g  
f r t h p l t a p t m t r e l t i k d l  
f r a n t h i n g m e c h m w h t h e  
t i x f the p l t e i n k e d The p l t  
t h l e d m g the u f f t h b

b e l l n k e t f a t e n e d t the b l a n k e t c y l d e r n the  
p r s The p r i n t e d i m a g e s t h e n o f f s e t o r t r a n s  
f e r r e d t the s h e e t a s i t p s e s t h o u g h the p r e s  
b y p r e a r e p p l i e d t the i m p r e s s i o n c y l i n d e r n  
the p r e s A f t e r t h p r i n t e d the h e e t s p a s e d o n  
t the d e l i e r y f the p r s s A t o m a t i c f e d e r s a r e  
s e d i the o p r a t i o n o f the s h e e t f e d f f e t p r e s s

One color o f f e t s h e e t f e d p r e s s e s u s e d n the i n  
d u t v v r y n h e t s i z e f r m 10 b y 14 t o 52 b y 76

T w t h e e a n d f o u m l o r p r s s s a e a l o  
l a b l e

O f f e t p e f e t n g p s e s p r i n t b t h i d e s f the  
h e e t a t o n t i m e s n g the b l a n k t t o b l a n k e t  
m t h o d o f t r a s f e r r i n g the p r i n t e d i m p r e s s i o n t o  
t h h e e t Th i m e t h o d e l i m i n a t e s t h i m p r e s s i o n  
c y l i n d e r a n d u s e s the b l a n k e t f the o p p o s i t e i d e  
f the h e e t a s the i m p r e s s i o n c y l i n d e r t r a n s f e r  
t h i m a g e t o the s h e e t R o l l f e d f f t w e b p e s e  
s o m e t i m e u s t h i b l a k e t t o b l a n k e t m e t h d o f  
m n t i n g b t h i d e s f the w b (F g 4)

R l l f e d f f e t w e t p r e s s e s a r e s e d n the a m e  
m n e a s l e t t e p r w e b p r e s s S o m e p r e s s  
p n t r l l t o r l l ( r e w n d ) o t h r s r l l t h e e t r  
o l l t o f l d e w h e m p l e t e f l d e s g n a t u s o f  
a m u l t i p l e n u m b e r f p a e s a r d e l e r e d

W l t p l e c l r f f s t p r s e s r o f t w o d e s i g n  
S o m e t a f e r e a l c l r s o f the p r i n t e d i m a g e  
t o the u b l e b l n k e t a d t h e n t r a n s f e r the m l t i  
l o m g t the h e t i s o n e m p e i o n O t h e r s  
t r a n s f e r the p r i n t e d i m a g e t o the s h e e t o n e o l o a t  
t i m e a d o o e c o l p e e (F g 5)

D r y f f e t p e e s o p a t e n the s e m a n e r a  
w e t f f e t p e s Th p l a t u s e d a e e t h d 0025  
i a r e l f i n t e a d f b e g p l a g r a p h i c ( o n  
t h u f e ) The w a t e r m e c h a i m s m d b a k  
f r o m the p l a t e n t a t n d m a d e i o p e r t i m d u r  
g t h p u g o p e r a t The k i g m e h a m  
o p e t d the m e m a n e r s f w e t o f f s e t  
e x e p t t h a t the o l l e q u i r e m e d e l i c a t e s e t  
t i n g t o p n t t h r i n k g the n o p n t n g p a r t s  
f t h e l e f t h e d p u g p l t e Th i m p r e s s i o n

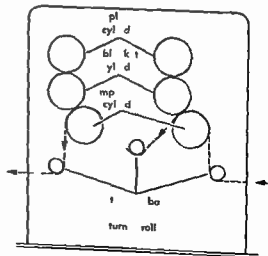


Fig 5 Off t t type m f p t g m l p l  
c l W b t h d d f g t w l o  
d f w b

is pulled on the rubber blanket and transferred to the sheet in the same manner as in wet offset printing. The dry offset printing plate is really a relief printing plate although it is printed on an offset press.

Direct lithographic presses operate in much the same manner as offset lithographic presses except that the printing plate impression is printed directly on the sheet instead of offsetting on the rubber blanket and then being transferred to the sheet; hence the name direct lithography.

In direct lithography the printing plates read from right to left as in letterpress printing plates and type, whereas offset lithographic printing plates read from left to right.

Direct lithographic presses can operate as sheet fed or roll fed web presses as desired according to the demands of the product being printed.

**Intaglio process printing presses.** Copperplate printing presses come under two classifications: hand and power driven. The hand power press consists of a flat bed and a curved impression surface much like that on a flat bed cylinder press. Great pressure is required for printing because the sheet is forced down into the engraved plate to take out the ink. When the plate to be printed has been inked, it is wiped clean with soft cheesecloth and the printer's hand on which whiting (a fine powder) has been applied. The plate is then placed on the bed of the press, the sheet to be printed is placed on the plate, and the impression is taken by pulling the spokes attached to the shaft of the curved impression cylinder. After the impression is pulled, the press returns to the original position automatically and is ready for the next impression.

The power driven copperplate printing press produces by hand feeding the sheet or card into the press for the impression. This is taken from a printing plate that has been automatically inked and wiped clean and free from superfluous ink just before the impression is taken on the sheet.

The operation of steel plate engraving presses is similar to the operation of a power driven copperplate press. The steel plate is used to withstand the tremendous impression pressure needed to take the ink out of the engraving on the plate during the impression cycle. Steel plates are sometimes called steel dies, the name given to the smaller size plates which are about  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. thick. The designs are hand cut, rolled on, or etched in the steel plate for bonds, bank notes, and business stationery. The steel given a hardening treatment to help it withstand the wear of production.

The manner of printing a steel plate is the same as that for the copper plate. The plate is automatically inked and wiped clean with a paper wipe. A roll of paper fed into the press across the steel plate and rewound during the cleaning of the plate.

The sheets or cards to be printed are fed into and removed from the press by hand. Modern steel plate and die stamping presses are roll fed with sheet delivery. Letterheads so produced are cut

from the roll after being printed and delivered in sheet. Drying of the heavy application of ink is done by infrared radiation. A specially prepared ink is used.

Steel die hand stamping presses are small crew activated swivel operated machines for use on small dies such as monogram circles and trademarks.

**Rotogravure presses.** Photogravure is any of the various processes of producing print from an intaglio plate prepared by photographic method. Rotogravure is a process of photogravure or intaglio printing in which the impression is obtained from etchings made on a copper cylinder which revolves in ink. Photogravure is classified by the industry as printing from a sheet of copper rotogravure as printing from a copper cylinder.

Photogravure presses were originally built to print from flat sheets of copper in the same general manner as a flat bed letterpress cylinder press. The inking mechanism and wiping mechanism were cumbersome. Rotary photogravure presses are built with a cylinder on which is fastened the etched copper printing plate with a doctor blade, a thin steel blade to wipe the superfluous ink from the surface of the plate which revolves in a fountain of thin ink and with a rubber impression roller of suitable durometer to pull the ink out of the etched wells in the plate and onto the sheet being printed. The feeding and delivery parts of the press operate in a fashion similar to that of rotary presses in offset and letterpress printing.

Rotogravure roll feed web presses print from metal coated or copper cylinder on which the image has been etched intaglio. The cylinder revolves in ink fountains. Thin ink is rolled into the etched cylinder in the fountain. A steel doctor blade wipes off the superfluous ink which drops back into the fountain and the impression is taken against a rubber impression roller of proper durometer to print the image sharp and clear (Fig. 3e).

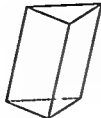
The presses run multiple color, four on each side of a web if desired. The ink dries quickly enough to deliver the web into a folder if desired. The web may be delivered into a sheeting machine cut into sheets and delivered from the press. See **INK PRINTING** [F.W.H.O.]

## Prism

A polyhedron of which two face are congruent polygons in parallel plane and the other face are parallel gram. The  $la = B$  are the congruent polygon, the lateral face are the parallelogram, the lateral edge are the edges not lying in the  $la$  and the perpendicular distance between the  $ba$  is the altitude  $l$ . Section parallel to the  $la$  are congruent to the  $la = A$  prism is a right prism if its lateral edges are perpendicular to the  $ba$  and an oblique prism otherwise. A prism is called a triangular prism if its  $la$  are triangles, a pentagonal prism if its  $la$  are pentagons and a parallelepiped if its  $la$  are parallelograms.



(a)



(b)

P (a) Right prism (b) Oblique prism

The time for a ray to pass through the area of its base is  $t = \frac{Bh}{c}$ . See POLYHEDRON PRISMATOID AND PRISMATOID [J.S.V.]

### Prism optical

An optical system containing two or more usually planar surfaces of transparent solid material at an angle to each other. Prisms are used for deviating light. The amount of deviation depends on the refractive index of the prism material and the wavelength of the light. See DISPERSION (RADIATION) REFRACTION OF WAVES.

Reflecting prisms. Prisms can be used in lieu of mirrors for directing light with the added advantage that the reflecting surfaces are protected against corrosion. The case of the total internal reflection. When the angles of incidence and emergence are equal, the optical path is the same. The geometry of the prism is such that the deviation at the entrance is compensated by the deviation at the exit. The angle of emergence is equal to the angle of incidence. For a detailed description of the types of reflecting prisms, see MIRROR OPTICS.

Dispersing prisms. Dispersing prisms deviate light of different wavelengths by different amounts. They are used to separate the components of white light into its constituent colors. A parallel beam of light entering the prism is dispersed into a spectrum of colors. The amount of dispersion depends on the refractive index of the prism material and the wavelength of the light.

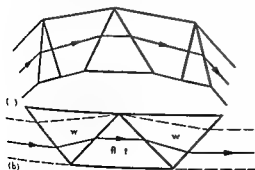


Fig 1 (a) Right prism (b) Oblique prism (c) Right prism (d) Oblique prism (e) Right prism (f) Oblique prism (g) Right prism (h) Oblique prism (i) Right prism (j) Oblique prism (k) Right prism (l) Oblique prism (m) Right prism (n) Oblique prism (o) Right prism (p) Oblique prism (q) Right prism (r) Oblique prism (s) Right prism (t) Oblique prism (u) Right prism (v) Oblique prism (w) Right prism (x) Oblique prism (y) Right prism (z) Oblique prism

that diameter of the refracting surface can be calculated as the magnitude of the prism.

The prism magnification factor is always equal to unity where  $n$  is the refractive index of the prism material. The angle of incidence is equal to the angle of refraction. The prism is used to deviate light. The amount of deviation depends on the refractive index of the prism material and the wavelength of the light. The prism is used to deviate light. The amount of deviation depends on the refractive index of the prism material and the wavelength of the light.

$$\sin(\delta + \alpha)/2 = n \sin \alpha/2$$

The dispersion of light by a prism with a rectangular cross-section can be used. The Rayleigh prism shown in Fig 1 is a simple example of such a system. By using prisms of different materials and adding a compensating prism made of a material having a low dispersion, a colorless image (see Fig 1b) can be obtained. The prism is used to deviate light. The amount of deviation depends on the refractive index of the prism material and the wavelength of the light.

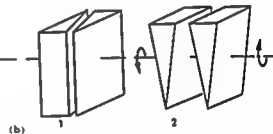
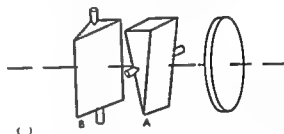


Fig 2 (a) Right prism (b) Oblique prism (c) Right prism (d) Oblique prism (e) Right prism (f) Oblique prism (g) Right prism (h) Oblique prism (i) Right prism (j) Oblique prism (k) Right prism (l) Oblique prism (m) Right prism (n) Oblique prism (o) Right prism (p) Oblique prism (q) Right prism (r) Oblique prism (s) Right prism (t) Oblique prism (u) Right prism (v) Oblique prism (w) Right prism (x) Oblique prism (y) Right prism (z) Oblique prism

prism system. The area of the prism is shown in Fig 1b. The prism is used to deviate light. The amount of deviation depends on the refractive index of the prism material and the wavelength of the light. The prism is used to deviate light. The amount of deviation depends on the refractive index of the prism material and the wavelength of the light.

A hemispherical lens is a type of optical system with a flat top surface and a hemispherical bottom surface. The lens is used to focus light. The amount of focusing depends on the refractive index of the lens material and the wavelength of the light. The lens is used to focus light. The amount of focusing depends on the refractive index of the lens material and the wavelength of the light.

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The presses run multiple color four on each side of a web if desired. The ink dries quickly enough to deliver the web into a folder if desired. The web may be delivered into a heater to be cut into sheets and delivered from the press. See 146. PRINTING [F W H O]

## Prism

A polyhedron of which two faces are congruent polygons in parallel planes and the other faces are parallelograms. The bases  $A$  and  $B$  are the congruent polygons. The lateral face is the parallelogram the lateral edges are the edge not lying in the bases and the perpendicular distance between the bases is the altitude  $h$ . Section parallel to the bases are congruent to the bases. A prism is a right prism if its lateral edges are perpendicular to the bases. An oblique prism otherwise. A prism is called a triangular prism if its bases are triangles, a pentagonal prism if its bases are pentagons and a parallelepiped if its bases are parallelograms.





linked together can be used to form a variable-focal length lens system called a zoom lens. See ZOOM LENS.

A thin prism is one whose angle is so small that the angle in radians is practically equal to the tangent. Such prisms are used in ophthalmology and their powers are usually expressed in prism diopters (see DIOPTRER). The Riley prism system is used for testing ocular convergence consists of two thin prisms mounted so that they can be rotated simultaneously in opposite direction as shown in Fig. 2b. When they are in the orientation sketched at 1 their combined deviation is zero; when both have been rotated by 90° in opposite direction as shown at 2 their combined deviation is a maximum; at intermediate position their combined deviation lies between zero and the maximum but the plane of deviation is constant. A similar pair of rotating wedges is used in certain types of rangefinder. See RANGEFINDER OPTICAL. See also BINOCULARS OPTICAL MATERIALS OPTICS GEOMETRICAL PERISCOPE RESOLVING POWER (OPTICS) [U.S.]

**Bibliography** D. H. Jacobs *Fundamentals of Optical Engineering* 1943 H. Kayser *Handbuch der Spectroscopie* vol. 1 1901

## Prismatoid and prismoid

A prismatoid is a polyhedron all of whose vertices lie in two parallel base planes. If the two base polygons have the same number of sides the prismatoid is called a prismoid. Among the prismatoids are included pyramids, frustums of pyramids, wedge parallelepipeds and other prisms. The area of a section of a prismatoid by a plane parallel to and between its bases is a quadratic function (possibly linear or constant) of the distance from the plane to one of the bases. A generalized prismoid is any solid for which the area of a section parallel to a fixed base is represented by a polynomial of degree less than or equal to 3 in terms of the distance from that base. Frustum of cone, segments of spheres and many other solids satisfy this condition. The volume of any generalized prismoid can be expressed exactly in terms of the altitude  $h$  and

the areas  $L$ ,  $M$  and  $U$  of its lower base, middle section and upper base by the important prismoidal volume formula

$$V = \frac{1}{6} h(L + 4M + U)$$

See PARALLELEPIPED POLYHEDRON PRISM PYRAMID AND FRUSTUM [J.S.F.]

## Privacy systems (scrambling)

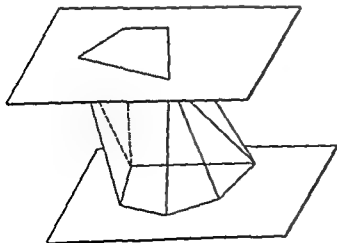
Devices and methods for ensuring the privacy of over-eas telephone conversations handled by radio links. Such privacy can be accomplished in a variety of ways; two are particularly widely used at circuit terminal.

The first method employs equipment for inverting speech to make over-eas telephone conversations unintelligible to the casual listener. At the originating end devices change the speech conveying signal making high frequencies low and low frequencies high; for example. At the distant end synchronized equipment restores the inverted speech to its original form for delivery to the listener.

A more complicated method employs filter to separate the transmitted speech signal into several narrow frequency bands. Each of the bands is then treated differently in a prearranged manner; the relative position of individual portions of the signal being interchanged in the frequency spectrum by inversion and transposition. At the distant end associated equipment puts the full signal back together in proper shape so that the listener may receive intelligible speech. This method particularly if such changes are automatically varied every few seconds, makes possible a radio transmission system that is very difficult to decipher. See FILTER ELECTRIC TELEPHONE [C.C.D.]

## Probability

Although probability theory derives its notation and terminology from intuition is a vague statement such as "John will probably come" is a remote from it as the statement "John is forceful and energetic" is remote from mechanics. Probability theory constructs a tract model mostly of a qualitative nature and only experience can show whether the realistically derived law of nature or life. A chief way in mathematics only logical relations and implications enter the theory and the notion of probability is just a undefined (and a intuition) as are the notions of point, line or mass. An actual assignment of numerical probabilities is frequently unnecessary or impossible. For example, telephone exchange are based on a theoretical comparison of several possible systems; only the optimal one are built and the other discarded. Thus a hypothesis depends on theoretical model of exchange which will never exist. A simple illustration of the nature of probability model is found in Lord Rutherford's experiment.



A prismatoid

**Example (a)** To measure risk, act = intention  
 Lo d Rutherford proceed d as if w Ol r v r  
 A d d 12 co nted c nillat n n a c r en and  
 observed expect ly \ and \ i tillat f  
 these \ ere m m n t both l rver To e t i  
 m t the u k n w t r e u m b e r \ l l t e r f r l a s  
 sum d t h e a h c i t i l l a t i n h f e d p r b a l i  
 t u s p a n d p t b e b r i e d b y  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  d  
 f h e m r t h t h b e r i a t i o n a r e d p e n d n t  
 in the e t h t c i t i l l a t i o n o f r e d b y  $A_1$  h a  
 t i l l p r o b a b i l i t y t h o b s e r v e d b y  $A_1$  in r e a l i t y  
 t h i k e l h o o d f o b r n a s e n t i l l u n a r e s  
 t h g o n g f t g u a d t h p r o x i m i t y f t h p r e  
 c e d g e n t i l l a t i o n a l t h l r v e r a r e a l  
 f e c t e d b c o m m e n s a n d a r e t h e r e n t  
 i n d e p e n d e n t E q u i p p h a l i t e s w i t h l r v e d  
 f r e q u e n c i e s (a n t h e r p p m a t i o n) R u t h e r f o r d  
 s e t  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = \lambda_4 = \lambda_5 = \lambda_6 = \lambda_7 = \lambda_8 = \lambda_9 = \lambda_{10}$  w h e n  
 f  $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 \lambda_3 \lambda_4 \lambda_5 \lambda_6 \lambda_7 \lambda_8 \lambda_9 \lambda_{10}$  The t h r e e e q u a t i o n s m e t b e c o u l d  
 f p n d p b u t t h e p r o b a b i l i t y r e p u r l y  
 f i t u r n a d a e p r i n n o w i n a c c e s s i b l e t o  
 p e r m i t a l v e r i f i c a t i o n T h e m o d e l i s t i f i e d b y  
 p l a u s i b i l i t y d e s

**The sample space** One p a k s i p r o b a b i l i t e s  
 d i v i d e s c o n n e c t s w i t h c o n t i n u a l (n o t n e a r  
 l y p r o b a b i l i t y) e x p e r i m e n t a n d m u l t i p l i c a t i o n  
 t h p o s s i b l e o u t c o m e s T h e b y n o m e n t a t i o n g e  
 e i t b e d H o r t a l T r e g a r d l e s f  
 p e u n e t a l o r p h i l o s o p h i c a l d i f f i c u l t i e s t h e a g e  
 o f a p a r t i c l e n a s e a t n u m b e r n d e c h  
 p t e n e m b e t a k a p a r t i c l e g T h e w  
 i n g t d i e e x l i m e o f t h e 36 c o m b i n a t i o n s  
 (11) (12) (13) (14) (15) (16) (17) (18) (19) (20) (21) (22) (23) (24) (25) (26) (27) (28) (29) (30) (31) (32) (33) (34) (35) (36)  
 m 4 a m p u n d e t w h c h n b e f r i l  
 d e c m p e d b y e n m e r t n s m d o c i f t h  
 o u t m s (13) (22) o r (31) T h e t e e e x  
 a m p l e d i s t i n g h b t e e n e l e m e n t a r y (a n d i  
 b) d m p d t m e s o e n t e E c h i  
 m t a r y t e m e s l l e d s a m p l e p o i n t t h e  
 s p e c i e s t h m p l p a c e T h c o n p t n l  
 p u n t d e f i n e d b y t h e s a m p l e p a a n d t  
 m t b t o d e d d t a b l e d t h e u t i

**Example (b)** T h e x p e r i m e n t "d s t r i b u t i n g 3  
 b l l s a 3 e l l s h 27 p s s i b l e o u t c o m b i n a t i o n s  
 p n a l l e d t a b u l a t n (1)

1   b c	10   a' b c	19   -   a   b c
2   -   b c	11   b a c	20   -   b   a c
3   -   -   b c	12   c a b	21   -   c   a b
4   b   -	13   -   -   b c	22   -   b   c
5   a c b	14   b   -   c	23   -   b   c
6   b c a	15   -   -   b	24   b   a c
7   b   -	16   -   a b c	25   b   c
8   a c   b	17   -   -   b	26   -   a   b
9   b c   -	18   -   b c   a	27   b   c

h e t h a t b n 7 l l m a y p e s e t t h  
 d t r i b u t i o n h a s a m g 7 a g i m i n a c  
 d e n s n 7 k d y d o  
 C o n s i d e r t h e e x p e r i m e n t o f p l a n g 3  
 d u g h a b l b l l t 3 c e l l W h e r o n t

actual fall are indistinguishable i m relevant  
 they are the tel a u h a n l l e n e n t i n t l r  
 is now a s p a c e f n l y 10 m p l ; n t l t s l t d  
 in t a l u l t i n (2)

1   -   -	4   -   -	8   -   -
2   -   -	5   -   -	9   -   -
3   -   -	6   -   -	10   -   -

In playing r i f t e a i p o i n t o n a c i r l r e p r e  
 s a t a p o s s i b l e u t m e a n d t h s a m p l e p o i n t  
 the interval  $0 < \theta < 1$  W i n o n e l r v e r t h e  
 m o t n f a p a r t i c l e u n d e r d i f f u s i o n e r y f i n  
 i t n x (t) r e p r e s e n t s a m p l e p o i n t m a n d  
 i t s a m p l e p o i n t a m p l a t i f i c a t i o n f e

**Events** I n e x m i n a n g a t r i g g e r h a n d o n m a y a k  
 w t l e r i t t a i n n e r a t i f i c a m e n t i n  
 e d i t i p r i n t p l e s h u h e n t m a y b e l e  
 t i b e d b y p e c i f i c a t i o n s a m p l e p o i n t w h l d  
 a t t r i b u t e t h e t u p l a t i n f i t u n T h e r y m  
 p u n d e v e n t i t p r e n t e d b y a n a g g r e g a t e s a m p l e  
 p o i n t a d i n p r o b a b i l i t y t h e o r y t h e r m  
 a r y n a y m s T h e t a n d r d n t a t i n f a t  
 t h e o r y u s e d t o d e f i n e r e l a t i o n a n g e s t  
 S S e r t u r o n y

C a e v n t A n m a y o n l y t h e t h a t f  
 l o e n t c e r T h e t h e n g a t n o r m p l m e n t o f  
 A l n t e d b y A t n t f i l l m p l p o i n t  
 t h a t d o t h e t A C e t o e n t A a l B  
 t h v e t C t i t t h e A B r b o t h e r t h e  
 u n f A n l B l l e d b y  $C = A \cup B$  I n  
 p a t l A \cup B t h w l f a m p l p a c e w i t h  
 t h e f r e p e n t n t i v T h e n t D b o t h A  
 n l B c e n t e n t c i t f A a d B a n d  
 w e t t a D = A \cap B l e c t f i t p o i n t o m m a  
 t A n l B l f t h r e e m u h m i n n p o i n t (a  
 n t h e a o f A \cap B) A a d B c e n t o c r  
 s e m i t n o l a n d t h y e a l l d m u l t i p l y c l  
 w r i t t e n  $A \cap B = 0$  T h e v n t A b u t n o t B  
 m p l y A \cap B

**Example (1)** I n t a b l e (1) t h e v n t A n e  
 c l l m t p l y e p e d t h e a g r e g a t f t h e p o i n t  
 n m b e r 11 21 T h e v e t B f s t e l l n o t m p l y  
 s t h a g g r e g a t o f t h e p o i n t 1 15 a n d  
 d e c r y p o t b e l n g e t h r t A s t B  
 (b o t h)  $A \cup B = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27\}$   
 $A \cap B = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27\}$   
 b e d i b e l s c l l e m p t y

**Probabilities in finite spaces** I f t h e s a m p l e  
 s p e c i e s e n t n o l y \ p o i n t E E x t h e r  
 p r o b a b i l i t y m a y b e a n y u m b e r s u c h t h  $P(E) \geq 0$   
 a n d  $P(E) + P(E) = 1$  T h e p r o b a b i l i t y  
 $P(A)$  f n e e n t A s t h e u m o f t h e p r o b a b i l i t y  
 o f a l l p o i n t s n t n d n A t h  $P(A) = 1$  T f i n d  
 $P(A \cup B)$  o e c o n d e s i l l p o i n t s b e l o g n o t e t h e  
 A o B b u t t h o e b e l o g i g t b t h A n l B r e  
 c o u n t e d l y n e T h e f r e  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$  I p t l a f r m t u l l y e x  
 l s e i s t h e t h e d d i n u l e  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$

linked together can be used to form a variable focal length lens system called a zoom lens See ZOOM LENS

A thin prism is one whose angle is so small that the angle in radians is practically equal to the tangent. Such prisms are used in ophthalmology and their powers are usually expressed in prism diopters (see DIOPTR). The Risley prism system used for testing ocular convergence consists of two thin prisms mounted so that they can be rotated simultaneously in opposite directions as shown in Fig 2b. When they are in the orientation sketched at 1 their combined deviation is zero when both have been rotated by 90° in opposite directions as shown at 2 their combined deviation is a maximum at intermediate positions their combined deviation lies between zero and the maximum but the plane of deviation is constant. A similar pair of rotating wedges is used in certain types of rangefinders. See RANGEFINDER OPTICAL. See also BINOCULARS OPTICAL MATERIALS OPTICS GEOMETRICAL PERISCOPE RESOLVING POWER (OPTICS) [M H]

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## Prismatoid and prismoid

A prismatoid is a polyhedron all of whose vertices lie in two parallel base planes. If the two base polygons have the same number of sides the prismatoid is called a prismoid. Among the prismatoids are included pyramids, frustums of pyramids, wedges, parallelepipeds and other prisms. The area of a section of a prismatoid by a plane parallel to and between its base is a quadratic function (possibly linear or constant) of the distance from the plane to one of the bases. A generalized prismoid is any solid for which the area of a section parallel to a fixed base is represented by a polynomial of degree less than or equal to 3 in terms of the distance from that base. Frustums of cone segments of spheres and many other solids satisfy this condition. The volume of any generalized prismoid can be expressed exactly in terms of the altitude  $h$  and

the areas  $L$ ,  $M$  and  $U$  of its lower base, midsection and upper base by the important prismoidal volume formula

$$V = \frac{1}{6} h(L + 4M + U)$$

See PARALLELEPIPED POLYHEDRON PRISM PYRAMID AND FRUSTUM [J S F]

## Privacy systems (scrambling)

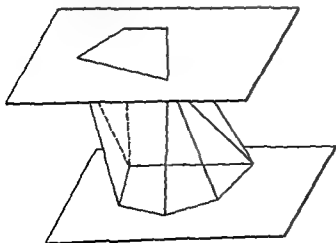
Devices and methods for ensuring the privacy of overseas telephone conversations handled by radio links. Such privacy can be accomplished in a variety of ways; two are particularly widely used at circuit terminals.

The first method employs equipment for inverting speech to make overseas telephone conversations unintelligible to the casual listener. At the originating end, devices change the speech conveying signal making high frequencies low and low frequencies high for example. At the distant end, synchronized equipment restores the inverted speech to its original form for delivery to the listener.

A more complicated method employs filters to separate the transmitted speech signal into several narrow frequency bands. Each of these is then treated differently in a prearranged manner: the relative positions of individual portions of the signal being interchanged in the frequency spectrum by inversion and transposition. At the distant end, associated equipment puts the full signal back together in proper shape so that the listener may receive intelligible speech. This method, particularly if such changes are automatically varied every few seconds, makes possible a radio transmission system that is very difficult to decipher. See FILTER ELECTRIC TELEPHONY [C C D U]

## Probability

Although probability theory derives its notion and terminology from intuition, a vague statement such as "John will probably come" is as remote from it as the statement "John is forceful and energetic" is remote from mechanics. Probability theory constructs abstract models, mostly of a qualitative nature, and only experience can show whether the models reasonably describe laws of nature or life. As always in mathematics, only logical relations and implications enter the theory, and the notion of probability is just as undefinable (and as intuitive) as are the notions of point, line, or mass. An actual assignment of numerical probabilities is frequently unnecessary or impossible. For example, telephone exchanges are based on a theoretical comparison of several possible systems; only the optimal ones are built, and the others discarded. Thus, a huge industry depends on the theoretical models of exchanges which will never exist. A simple illustration of the nature of probability models is found in Lord Rutherford's experiment.



A prismatoid



Frequently considerations of symmetry lead one to consider all  $E_i$  as equally likely that is to set  $P(E_i) = 1/\Lambda$ . In this case  $P(A) = n/\Lambda$  where  $n$  is the number of points in  $A$  for a gambler betting on 4 these represent the favorable cases. For example in throwing a pair of perfect dice one naturally assumes that the 36 possible outcomes are equally likely. This model does not lose its justification or usefulness by the fact that actual dice do not live up to it but for loaded dice a different model is required. The assumption of perfect randomness in games card shuffling industrial quality control or sampling is rarely realized and its true usefulness stems from the experience that noticeable departures from the ideal scheme lead to the detection of assignable causes and thus to theoretical or experimental improvements.

How the success of probability theory depends on the disregard of preconceived philosophical ideas and on the readiness to adapt models to unexpected circumstances is illustrated by Bose-Einstein statistics.

**Example (d) Bose-Einstein statistics** In the example of tabulation (1) the notion of perfect randomness leads to the assignment of probability  $1/27$  to each point. In the case of indistinguishable balls tabulation (2) it has been argued that an experiment is unaffected by failure to distinguish between balls physically there remain 27 possibilities grouped in 10 distinguishable forms. This argument leads to assigning probability  $1/27$  to each of the points 1-3 probability  $1/9$  to each of the points 4-9 and  $2/9$  to point 10. This reasoning (sound in certain situations) has been accepted as evident in statistical mechanics for the distribution of  $r$  particles in  $n$  cells (Maxwell-Boltzmann statistics). Surprisingly it turned out that no physical particles behave this way and it was revolutionary when Bose and Einstein showed that for one type of particle all distinguishable arrangements are equally likely. This model assigns probability  $1/10$  to each point of tabulation (2). See BOLTZMANN STATISTICS BOSE-EINSTEIN STATISTICS.

A useful although vague intuitive description of probability describes  $P(A)$  as the relative frequency of the event  $A$  if the experiment is repeated many times under identical circumstances. The laws of large numbers render this more precise but the description often lacks operational meaning. Experiments in agriculture and human sampling cannot be repeated under remotely similar conditions and in the case of telephone exchanges useful probability models refer to situations which will never materialize.

**Probabilities in infinite spaces** Two examples may illustrate the novel features of this topic.

**Example (e) unending coin tossing** In the study of limit laws one must consider potentially infinite sequences of coin tossings. The possible outcome of this experiment in an infinite sequence of heads and tails and every sequence such as  $HTHTTH$  represents a sample point. Finally

the sequence and the event first four trials resulted in  $HTTH$  is the aggregate of the infinitely many sequences with the prescribed beginning. Such an event is called an interval of length 4. There are  $2^4$  intervals of length  $n$  and they are mutually exclusive. For reasons of symmetry one attributes the probability  $2^{-n}$  to each interval of length  $n$ . Thus the assignment of basic probabilities refers to intervals rather than to points. A point such as  $HTHT$  is the limit of an infinite sequence of contracting intervals  $HHT$   $HTH$  and therefore probability zero must be attributed to each individual point.

The probabilities of other events are similarly defined by limiting procedures. For example consider the event  $A$  that an infinitely prolonged sequence of trials never produces a run of at least two consecutive heads or two consecutive tails. It is more convenient to enumerate the points of the complementary event  $A$  that two equal symbols do occur in succession. Clearly  $A$  is the union of the infinitely many mutually exclusive intervals  $HH$   $TT$   $HTT$   $THH$   $HTHH$   $THTT$  and so on. Here there are 2 intervals of length  $n \geq 2$  and therefore  $P(A) = 2(2^{-2} + 2^{-3} + 2^{-4} + \dots) = 1$  whence  $P(A) = 0$ . The indicated result of the experiment is thinkable but probability zero is attributed to it. A similar although more complicated limiting procedure leads to the law of large numbers according to which the event "the frequencies of  $H$  and  $T$  in the first  $n$  trials tend to  $1/2$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  has probability one.

**Example (f) roulette** Here the sample space consists of the angles  $0 \leq \vartheta < 2\pi$  and the notion of a perfect roulette assumes equal probabilities for intervals of equal length thus an interval of length  $\alpha$  carries probability  $\alpha/2\pi$ . If the roulette is divided into  $3^9$  equal numbered intervals the event "even number" consists of 16 intervals and has probability  $1/2$ .

The situation encountered here is not peculiar to probability but is common in measure theory. One starts with a collection of basic measurable intervals and attributes probabilities to them. By simple and natural limiting procedures probabilities can then be defined for a much wider class  $\mathcal{F}$  of events which are obtainable by applying the operations of set theory to intervals (in finite or in infinite numbers).  $\mathcal{F}$  is the Borel field generated by the intervals. Probability is simply a measure on  $\mathcal{F}$  that is to each event  $A$  in  $\mathcal{F}$  there corresponds a probability  $P(A) \geq 0$  which is completely additive. If  $A$  is the union of the mutually exclusive events  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  then  $P(A) = \sum P(A_i)$ . The probability of the whole space is of course unity.

The extension of the addition rule from finite to infinitely many summands may be defended by considerations of continuity but ultimately this procedure is justified by its simplicity and its success.

**Conditional probability—Independence** Suppose that a population of  $\Lambda$  people includes  $\Lambda_A$  color blind persons and  $\Lambda_{\bar{A}}$  females. To the event  $A$



the sex distribution within families resembles Bernoulli trials is purely a matter of experience. Many gamblers fully accept the independence and yet believe that they can influence fate by using systems for example by skipping the game after each failure or waiting for a run of 3 successes and so on. The theorem on systems shows this to be a fallacy: a gambler not endowed with foresight may use any system or random choice of the times when he plays or skips the game; he remains confronted with Bernoulli trials and is exactly in the same situation as if he played at each trial. See DISTRIBUTION (PROBABILITY).

**Example (i) geometric probabilities.** In the interval  $0 < x < 1$  a point is chosen at random. This interval is the sample space  $\mathcal{S}$  and the probability of each subinterval equals its length. The sample space  $\mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{S}$  is the unit square of the  $xy$  plane and the probability of any figure equals its area. The event that the two successive choices result in a sum  $< 1$  is represented by the triangle below the main diagonal and has probability  $1/2$ . The event that the greater of the two choices is  $< t$  is represented by the square  $0 < x < t$ ,  $0 < y < t$  and has probability  $t^2$ .

**Dependent trials. Markov chains.** Many phenomena can be analyzed in terms of dependent trials. In their description adopt the convenient and picturesque terminology of urn models which should not detract from the general nature of the scheme.

Consider an urn containing  $N$  balls of which  $r$  are red  $R$  and  $b = N - r$  black  $B$ . Assuming perfect randomness the probability that a randomly drawn ball be red equals  $r/N$ . If the ball is replaced and the procedure repeated the result is Bernoulli trials with  $p = r/N$ . Without replacement the sample space corresponding to two drawings contains four points  $RR$ ,  $RB$ ,  $BR$  and  $BB$  to which probabilities are assigned as follows. If the first ball drawn is red (probability  $r/N$ ) the conditional probabilities of  $R$  and  $B$  at the second trial become  $(r-1)/(N-1)$  and  $b/(N-1)$ . By Eq. (1) therefore

$$P[RR] = r(r-1)/N(N-1) \\ P[RB] = P[BR] = rb/N(N-1)$$

and

$$P[BB] = b(b-1)/N(N-1)$$

The trials may be continued and are equivalent to ordinary sampling.

A more general urn model is obtained by letting the composition of the urn vary from trial to trial. For definiteness consider the following scheme: each time a ball is drawn it is replaced and  $c$  balls of the color drawn and  $d$  balls of the opposite color are added to the urn. Here  $c$  and  $d$  are fixed numbers which may be negative. This scheme contains interesting special cases such as the following:

1. When  $c = d = 0$  drawing with replacement occurs and for  $c = -1$ ,  $d = 0$  drawing without replacement occurs. In the latter case the process terminates after  $N$  drawings.

2. The Polya model of contagion is the special case when  $c > 0$  is fixed and  $d = 0$ . Here the drawing of either color increases the probability of the same color at subsequent trials just as in a contagious disease each occurrence increases the probability of further occurrences. This model represents only a crude first approximation to phenomena of contagion but it leads to comparatively simple formulas and has been applied with astonishing success to a variety of experiences from sickness insurance to baseball score.

3. The Ehrenfest model for heat exchange considers two containers I and II and  $N$  particles distributed in them. A particle is chosen at random and removed from its container into the other. This scheme differs only linguistically from the urn scheme. If the particles in I are called red and those in II black, then each trial changes the color of one ball and gives the special case  $c = -1$  and  $d = 1$ .

The probabilities of the various possible outcomes in the general scheme are obtained as above. For example  $P(RBR) = (b+d)(r+c+d)/N(N+c+d)(N+2c+d)$  and so on.

Markov chains represent another important scheme for dependent trials. Suppose that at each trial the possible outcomes are  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n$  and that whenever  $E_i$  occurs the conditional probability of  $E_j$  at the next trial is  $p_{ij}$  independently of what happened at the preceding trials. Here of course  $p_{ij} \geq 0$  and  $p_{i1} + p_{i2} + \dots + p_{in} = 1$  for each  $i$ . The  $p_{ij}$  are called transition probabilities. The whole process is now determined if the initial probabilities  $p_i$  at the first trial are known. For example  $P(E_1 E_2 E_3) = p_1 p_{12} p_{23}$ . The probability of the event  $E_i$  at the third trial is obtained by summation over all  $a$  and  $b$  and so on. Markov chain and their analog with continuous time represent the simplest type of stochastic process. The Ehrenfest model considered above may be treated as a Markov chain by letting  $E_i$  represent the event that container I contains  $i$  particles. Then  $p_1 = 1/N$ ,  $p_{10} = (N-1)/N$  and  $p_{11} = 0$  for all other combinations of  $i$ . Other examples of Markov chains are the gambler's accumulated fortune, the composition of a deck of cards under random shuffling and random walks. Important applications are to queueing theory where one encounters also processes with more complicated aftereffects. See QUEUEING THEORY; STOCHASTIC PROCESSES.

**Random variables and their distributions.** The theory of probability traces its origin to gambling and the gambler's gain may still serve as the simplest example of a random variable. With every possible outcome (sample point) there is associated a number, namely the corresponding gain. In other words the gain is a function on the sample space and such functions are called random variables. (In infinite spaces the idea is the same but a somewhat more cautious definition is in order.) With the same experiment one may associate many random variables. As an example consider the sample point  $f$





ance divided by  $s_{12}$  is called the correlation coefficient of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ . If it vanishes  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are called uncorrelated. Every pair of independent variables is uncorrelated but the converse is not true.

If  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are random variables with expectations  $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n$  and variances  $s_1^2, s_2^2, \dots, s_n^2$ , the expectation of their sum  $S = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$  is always given by  $E(S) = m_1 + m_2 + \dots + m_n$ . If all the covariances of  $X_i$  and  $X_j$  vanish then clearly  $\text{Var}(S) = s_1^2 + s_2^2 + \dots + s_n^2$ .

When  $X$  represents a physical quantity then  $X^* = (X - m)/s$  represents the same quantity measured from a different origin and in new units. In the physicist's terminology  $X^*$  is the quantity  $X$  referred to dimensionless units. In probability  $X^*$  is called the reduced or standardized variable.

It was once assumed that every reasonable random variable has finite expectation and variance. Modern theory refutes this assumption. Many recurrence times in important physical processes have no finite expectations. Even in the simple coin-tossing game the number of trials up to the time when the gambler's accumulated gain first reaches a positive level has infinite expectation.

**Laws of large numbers.** To explain the meaning of the expectation and at the same time to justify the intuitive frequency interpretation of probability consider a gambler who at each trial may gain the amounts  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  with probabilities  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n$ . The gains at the first and second trials are independent random variables  $X_1, X_2$  with the indicated distribution and the common expectation  $m = \sum p_i x_i$ . The event that an individual gain equals  $x$  has probability  $p$  and the frequency interpretation of probability leads one to expect that in a large number of  $n$  trials this event should happen approximately  $np$  times. If this is true the total gain  $S = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$  should be approximately  $nm$ , that is the average gain  $(1/n)S$  should be close to  $m$ . The law of large numbers in its simplest form asserts this to be true. More precisely for each  $\epsilon > 0$  it asserts one that

$$P\left\{\left|\frac{1}{n}S - m\right| > \epsilon\right\} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

This law holds also when the distribution function is not discrete.

As a special case one can obtain a frequency interpretation of probability. In fact consider an event  $A$  with  $P(A) = p$  and suppose that in a sequence of independent trials a gambler receives a unit amount each time when  $A$  occurs. Then the expectation of the individual gain equals  $p$  and  $S$  is the number of times the event  $A$  has occurred in  $n$  trials. It follows that

$$P\left\{\left|\frac{1}{n}S - p\right| > \epsilon\right\} \rightarrow 0$$

that is the relative frequency of the occurrence of  $A$  is likely to be close to  $p$ .

Without this theorem probability theory would lose its intuitive foundation but its practical value is minimal because it tells one nothing concerning the manner in which the averages  $(1/n)S$  are likely to approach their limit  $m$ . In the regular case where the  $X_j$  have finite variances the central limit theorem gives much more precise and more useful information. For example it tells one that for large  $n$  the difference  $S - np$  is about as likely to be positive as negative and is likely to be of the magnitude  $n^{1/2}$ . When the  $X_k$  have no finite variance the central limit theorem fails and the sums  $S$  may behave oddly in spite of the law of large numbers. For example it is possible that  $E(X_k) = 0$  but  $P(X_k < 0) \rightarrow 1$ . In gambling language this game is fair and yet the gambler is practically certain to sustain an ever increasing loss.

There exist many generalizations of the law of large numbers and they cover also the case of variables without finite expectation which play an increasingly important role in modern theory. See GAME THEORY. PROBABILITY IN PHYSICS. STATISTICS. [W.F.]

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## Probability in physics

To the physicist the concept of probability is like an iceberg. The part of it which he uses and which is therefore in full view for him is but a small fraction of what is hidden in other and larger disciplines. The philosophy and mathematics of probability have become increasingly interesting and important through many current researches. See PROBABILITY.

**Bernoulli's problem.** One of the most basic problems encountered in the application of probability to physics was solved by J. Bernoulli. It concerns the probability of achieving a specified number ( $x$ ) of successes in  $n$  independent trials when the probability of success in a single trial is known. Denote by  $p$  the probability of success, let  $q = 1 - p$  be the probability of failure. The term

$$C = \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} \quad (1)$$

represents the well known binomial coefficient. The probability in question is

$$u(x) = C p^x q^{n-x} \quad (2)$$

For example one may consider an urn containing  $a$  black balls and  $b$  white balls. Drawings are to be made from this urn with replacement of the drawn ball each time. The probability that  $x$  white balls shall turn up in the  $n$  drawings is required. In this example

$$p = \frac{b}{a+b} \quad \text{and} \quad u(x) = C \left(\frac{b}{a+b}\right)^x \left(\frac{a}{a+b}\right)^{n-x} \quad (3)$$

exp o e w h e s t o e x p l i n w h y a g a e e t s  
a p r e s e p o n t h e w a l l f a c t i n t h e i r e  
t h m e t m l s t b y t h m l e c u l e s p e r u n t  
t i m a s t h y s t r i k a u t a r e a f w a l l T h e m l e  
c l e s a e y n m e a n d t h r m m n t m l e  
y e r t u a l l y f r m s t n t o s t a t f c o l l i s i n  
a d f m p t o p o t o t h s u r f a c e I t i n e e  
r y t h e r f r e t h a t m e a g b e t a k e n S h u l d  
t h a e r a g e b e r t h e d f l e r t h i s w h i c h a  
l m l e c l e e p i e r e s i t m ? O r h i l d n  
t k t h a e a g e t g i e n t i m e o e r t h e w h l e  
e u d e c i d e r a t ? C l e a r l y t h e r e a r e m a n y  
a r f c m p u t g t h a e r a g e e a h i n l i n g a  
p a r t l a r c o l l c t i e i n t h e a f r e m e n e d e  
a d e h r q r a n g a p e c i f i t n o f e l m e t a r y  
p r o b l e m s

N w t h e e c e o f m e c h a n i c s d o e s n t c l e a r l y  
d t t w h i c h c o l l e c t i e i s t h e p r p r n e t o b e  
e d n d t h e e i d e b l e t i t u d e f c h i e  
O n o f t h e c l l e c t i e s w h i c h a s p e d m o t u e  
f l t h m b l f J W G b b s w i l l e d  
e d b e f f y

Ph esp The m t t n o f a s i g l e m l e c l e  
d e s c r i b e d i n t e r m s o f v a r i a b l e s — i t p t i o n  
a d t m m t u m a t n y g n t i m e I t e m p l e a t e  
e f m t l g n g l a s f r x a m p l e t h x a i t n m b e r s  
u f f i c e t o d e s r i t t h m t t h y a r e t h e p o t i n x a n d t h m o m e t m  
p l i a p l i s t r u t e d w i t h x a n d p l d f f  
n t w p e r p d l e a s w i t h n t h i p l a n e t h e  
m t o f t h m l e u l e s e p r e n t d b y u r v e  
m t p l n e n d t h p l i a l l e d t h p h a e p a  
f t h m g m l e c u l e A m l c u l w h e m t n  
i p l q u e s s y p d p t h t f o r  
n u m b f m p l t e d e s i p t a n d t h e a  
f o u r m b e s d f i n e a p o t i s a p h e p a c f  
f d m e n s S i m i l a r a m o l e c u l e m i n g i n  
t h r e e d i m e n l p a c e h a s p h a p e f x  
d m i ( x y p p a d p ) n d i s  
d y n m b h a i d p t e d b y a c u r v e i n t h i s  
d m l p c e

T h i d c n b e g n e a l z e d a d p l e d t m  
c o t a i n i n g m o l u l e s T h e p a c e o f t h g a  
l l h 6 y d m n s d i t h m t o f t h e n  
t u g e p d t o t h e t r a j e c t o r y f a g l  
p o t i t h 6 y d m n l p e A g l p t  
t h i d b t h p h y a l n d t n f i t h n  
t g

E m b l s H e G b b t d e d t h e n t o f  
n m b l M m a g n e d g r e t n m b e f t h r  
m o d m i t m l l m t t h g i n o e f f  
t h i n h e i f f i l l e d w i t h g s h m a g n e d  
r y l g m b e f m l r e l l f i l l d w t h  
t h w e q a t t v f t h e m e g T h i l l c t  
f u m y e l l d s m m b l E h  
m m b f t h e m b l e w l l h a t f t e p  
s e t e d b y p o t m g 6 y d m n a l p l  
p d t h w l m b l e w h n c w e d m  
t h t p w l l a p p l k a l d f d t w i t h  
h d d l d t p a r t l e f l l w m t o w n p t h  
T h d n t i f t h l u d f d t w i l d f f f m  
p l t p l a d w i l l h a n g i n t i m e t n y  
e p l c e F m t h e l w f m h a t m y h

shown that the imaginary cloud f d t l l a e  
l k n e m p r l l l l

T i e r a s e t f e n l t i n f w e y r i n d e r  
w h i c h t h c l i d w i l l n t c h a g i t d n t y i n t i m e  
e n t h u g l i t i n d i a d i a l p i n t a r e i n m t i n  
O n e s h h n d i t n a m i t t l e c i t n f a  
s p e c a l d e n i t y d t r l u t i n k n o w n a s t h e c a n n i c a l  
d t r i u t n l i t a t h s i m p l e f r m

$$D(x_1, p) = c n t n t \times \exp \left[ \frac{-H(x_1, p)}{kT} \right]$$

w l e e H i t l e e r g y T t l e t m p e r a t e f t h  
g a n d k i B l t z m a n n t a n t

A t h p o r t m e n t a t i m d w i t h t h a l e r  
c n d r a t i n A l l d y n a m i a l s a i d i u l a l l  
p r e a r e f t h e p r e c e d g e x m p l w h i c h n e d t  
l e r a g e d s o d e t o r e p n d t h l e r v  
a b l e s f t h r m o d y n a m i c a r e t h e a v e r g e d  
r t h e p r o b i l i t y d i t r i t n D W i n t h i s d n e  
t h e l a w f t h e r m o d m e c f l l w i n t h a t e n  
C i b l p r o b a b i l i t y d t r i t n p r i d a n e x p l a  
n a t i n f t h e r m o d y n a m i c

T h e e f C l l t h e o r y i c l a l m  
h n e a r m r h a l l e i n r d r t l a p l a l l  
f e r t y t m w h i f f l w l l f q a n  
t u m m h a n e i s a n m o d i f i a t n r n e s  
s a y S B O L T Z 1 9 4 4 S T A T I S T I C S Q U A N T U M  
S T A T I S T I C S S T A T I C A L M E C H A N I C S S T A T I S T I C S  
[ 1 1 M ]

B i b l o g p h y R C a r n a p I g I F o u n d t i o s o f  
P b a b i l i t 1 9 0 D e t e H a r F i m e n t s o f S t t i  
t I M e c h a n i c s 1 9 4 R B I n d a y I n t d t n  
t P h y s i c f S t a t 1 9 4 1 R B I s d y a d l l  
M a r g e n a u F i d a t a s o f P h y s i c s 1 9 7 R o n  
M i e W a h r c h l e c h i t s e c h u g 1 9 3 1

### Problem solving (psychology)

T h i s i s a y i d e t n a l l e f a i r t a n e d l y n  
r g a n m d e r t a t t a g l w h i c h n t i m  
m d a t l y c e f l n a r l y d n t i a l p r e c e s  
h a e b e e d t i s i n h e d l y d i f f e r e n t t e m d e p n d  
n g p t h e c r u m m e c e u n d e w h i t h p r b l e m  
l i n g t a k e s p l c e U u l l y t h t e g n p r l e m  
l i g h a b e e n r e t r e d t h t a d i e w i t h  
r e q r t h u b j t t m a n i p l a t e t o o l a m b l  
d e v e d e c r t h e i g f a c e o f a d t u l f  
n t h e t h h n d t h l u t n l l f t h e r e g  
t n f a e l t s h p t h a t i s t h i d t i n l  
l a s f i a t i n f t u m l t h e p o c h a s b e a l l e d  
c n e p t f r m t d m i n a t l e a r n i n g  
w h e n b e r v e d i n f a b u m a n a l W h e t h  
p r o b l m t b e l e d q u s t h e c r t i f a  
m a l f u n c t n f e q s p m n t t h e p m h a b e e n  
a l l d t o b l h o t g W h n t h p r b l m r q u e  
t h i l m b e t w e n t w o r m o e a l t n t i  
u f t i t h n h h b e e n a l l d  
d m k g

C o m p r t e p y c h l g y h m d u m e u c n  
t b u t n n t l y n i t h d c r i p t n f t h e p b  
l m l n g p a c t i e f l w e t r g a s m b u t l a o  
u g g e t g h y p t h e a s t h n a t u f t h e  
p o c e m h m s b e g I n d d t n t t h

simple form

$$w(\delta) d\delta = \sqrt{\frac{x}{2\pi q}} \exp\left[-\frac{x}{2q}\delta^2\right] d\delta \quad (17)$$

Here  $\bar{x}$  is the mean number of molecules within  $v$  and  $q$  is very nearly equal to 1 if  $v \ll 1$ . Formula (17) is well supported by experiment.

**Theory of errors** Perhaps the most important application of probability theory to exact science occurs in the treatment of errors. Measurements are accompanied by error of two kinds: determinate and random. The former arise from actual mistakes either on the part of the observer or from faulty instruments; they are not susceptible of mathematical treatment. Random errors, however, because they are numerous, small, and likely to combine in linear fashion, are subject to the laws of probability analysis.

**The Gauss error law.** Let there be  $n$  measurements of some physical quantity resulting in the numbers  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ . If the true value of the quantity (usually unknown) is denoted by  $\bar{X}$ , then the errors are

$$x_1 = X_1 - \bar{X}, \quad x_2 = X_2 - \bar{X}, \quad \dots, \quad x_n = X_n - \bar{X} \quad (18)$$

It can be shown mathematically and has been confirmed by numerous observations that the relative frequency of occurrence of an error  $x$  is represented by Bernoulli's distribution which under the present conditions takes on the form of Gauss's law

$$N(x) dx = \frac{h}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-h^2 x^2} dx \quad (19)$$

In this formula the parameter  $h$  equals  $1/(2\sigma)$  and is called the index of precision. Clearly the greater the value of  $h$ , the narrower the distribution given by Eq. (19). The latter is often called the Gauss error law or the normal distribution of errors. In writing it the assumption has of course been made that the numbers  $x_1, x_2, \dots$  etc. may be replaced by a continuous distribution.

The probability that a single measurement will contain an error between the limits  $-a$  and  $+a$  is

$$\frac{h}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-a}^{+a} e^{-h^2 x^2} dx = \frac{2h}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^a e^{-h^2 x^2} dx \quad (20)$$

The integral occurring here is called the error function and is denoted by  $\text{erf}(a)$ ; it is tabulated in most textbooks that discuss the theory of errors. The factor in front of the integral has been chosen so that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} N(x) dx = 1$$

Returning to the set of measured values  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ , one may ask which is the most probable value (the one most likely to be true) consistent with this set of numbers? The answer is given by the principle of least squares, which affirms that the most probable value is the one for which the

sum of the squared errors

$$x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2$$

is a minimum (see LEAST SQUARES METHOD OF). From this one may prove directly that the most probable value of  $\bar{X}$  is its arithmetical mean

$$\bar{X} = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n} \quad (21)$$

**Kind of errors.** The reliability of a set of measurements such as the equation  $\bar{X} = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n}$  is specified by certain measures called errors, but in a slightly different sense from that previously employed. Three kinds of error will be described: the average error  $a$ , the root mean square error  $m$ , and the probable error  $r$ . All three refer not to a single measurement as did the quantity  $x$ , but to the entire distribution (19).

The average error  $a$  is the arithmetical mean of all individual errors without regard to sign

$$a = \frac{\sum |x|}{n} \quad (22)$$

When the averaging process is carried out with the use of (19), one obtains the equation

$$a = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |x| N dx = \frac{2h}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} x e^{-h^2 x^2} dx = \frac{1}{h\sqrt{\pi}} \quad (23)$$

The measure of precision  $h$  has already been defined. It is an inverse measure of the width of the Gaussian curve, but it cannot be established without ambiguity from a finite set of measurements  $X_i$ . If the most probable value of  $h$  is calculated, it turns out to be the root mean square error

$$m = \sqrt{\sum x^2 / n} \quad (24)$$

Comparison with Eq. 23 shows that

$$a = m\sqrt{2/\pi} \quad (25)$$

The quantity  $m$  is identical with what was previously called the standard deviation.

**The probable error** is defined as follows: It marks that value of  $x$  which divides the area under the curve  $N(x)$  between zero and infinity into equal parts. Hence  $r$  is an error such that a given error  $x$  has an equal chance of being greater or smaller than  $r$ . Mathematically, the value of  $r$  is found from the equation

$$\text{erf}(hr) = 1/2 \quad (26)$$

The numerical relations between  $m$  and  $a$  are

$$\begin{aligned} r &= 0.6745m = 0.8153a \\ m &= 1.4826r = 1.2533a \\ a &= 0.7998m = 1.189r \end{aligned} \quad (27)$$

**Probability in statistical mechanics.** A complex physical system made up of many constituent particles, for example, molecules, obey the empirical laws of the dynamics. Statistical mechanics is that science which attempts to explain the  $e$  law by an appeal to the laws of ordinary mechanics. In doing so it encounters the problem of the following sort:

r n s th a qu i n f an o r all r u l  
 r p l w h c h e a b l e t h e o r g a n i m t r p o n d  
 e t t h n b m n a n e w t r i l e m f m n k e  
 e n t e d t h a f d w e l l t a y a d e c l f t h e  
 t h r e e l l s e e e d b y a n o b j e c t T w i f t h e  
 o b j e c t e d e t u l a l l r e d e l e s b t t h e t h i d  
 o b j e c t i d f f e t a m a l l g r e e n c n F o d i s  
 a y s p l a e n d r t h e d d i j e c t h e n c e t h h a  
 b e e c a l l e d t h e o d d t y p r b l e m I f t h e a n m a l i  
 g n e v a l t r i a l t h r e e p r i u l a r o b j e c t  
 h p r f r m a n c e w i l l i m p o e h e w i l l l e a r n t h a t  
 t h e r e d n d e r t h e g r e e n c e A f t e r a n u m b e r  
 f t r i a l t h e u b e s a n d t h e n e r r e p l a c e d w i t h  
 t h e r t f t i d e n t i c a l o b j e c t a n d a n o d d  
 o b j e c t I f t h e a n m a l h a s o n l y t r i e d t o r e s p o n d  
 t h e g r e e n n e t h f r t p r i l e m h i s p e r f r m  
 a n c o n t h e c n d p r b l e m h l d b e n b e t t e r  
 t h h a w I f o n t h e r h a n d t h a n m l h  
 l e a r n e d t h e r u l t h a t t h e f o o d i u n d e r t h e o d d  
 o b j e c t h p e r f o m a n c e h o l d b e l e t t e r t h a n  
 t h T h d e c r p t n s a s a r e s i m p l i f i c a t n  
 e s t u l l t a k s t p e n c e w i t h m a n y p r o b l e m s  
 f m t a m a l w i l l h w a n y e i d e r e l a r n  
 t s t h l a r n i n g e t p a d g m h b e c u d e m  
 t r e d n a n u m b e r o f a m a l p e c i e u f h b e e n p  
 p o e d t h a t t b e u e d a s a m e n s o f m k g n t  
 p e s c m p r i n o f i n t e l l e c t u a b l e

H m n b n g o f c u a e p a b l o f d p l a y  
 g l a n g u a l i q u e t e l k l y t h a t t h i s p o c e s s  
 n o t i f m h o f m a n a b i l i t y g e n e r a l e  
 a d t o a p p l y k l l a r n e d i n o i n s t i t u t i o n t o a  
 e n p r b l m U f t t e l y m a n m a y l g e n  
 a l u n d a p p l y n a p p r i o r i t e r i e t a n e w  
 t o t n d t h e r e b t a k l o n g e r t o f t h e n e w  
 p r o b l m t h a n i f h e h d h a d u r l e

Group problem solving Gr p problem sol ing  
u l l h s b e n t d e d a f m f s c a l o y  
h l g y R e a h i t h s a h a l e e p p a l l y  
u t h e r f r m (2) t h m e m b o f t h e g r u p a  
p r m t t e d f e m m u n c a t o w t h e a c h o t h e r  
f t h l e a f m m u i a t o n a e c t r c t e d t  
p e r m i t d y f i t h e f f t f n f o r m t n f l o w u  
(3) t h s b j e c t p a t p t g a m p l a y e d  
a s c t h r b j c t r t h e x p m n t e r  
m t h e

Th m s m th d logical p blem  
 whch till h n t been sat fa to ly l ed in the  
 first arred a d mo t c m m f r m f g up p ob-  
 l m r l i g O e f d a m e n t l q u e s t o n a s k e d  
 this a o f e a c h s w h e t h e o t t w h a d  
 better th n A t b e t h p r e s e n t w a n  
 ly b th t d p d s u p n t h c u r o n f b e t  
 t r n d p t h t y p f p b l e m t b e s o l e d I f  
 th o f t n r q u e t h e e m b l y o f a d e v i e r  
 m e c h l p u z z l e o b j u t t p r t o f t h  
 d e v a b h n d l e d b y n l y p n a t a t m e  
 p e s e t e v d e n s s u g g e t t h a t e u p w l l b e  
 p n n o a n a n d a l h e e l p p o a c h e s  
 e a n e d e r w h e n l g a m t f i f r m t o  
 h a t b v o a d e l l e d a n d r l d H w e v r  
 b u e f i t h e n t r d p e d e c i e s f t h m b e r o f  
 the g r o p t l o f e f t h m e m b r a

adversely affect the performance of the entire group if the error in the input product per minute the individual usually will be superfluous to the group.

**Individual differences** This is the area of research in psychology concerned with the average of ability difference of individual through the use of test. The usual omnibus intelligence test is inadequate for research purposes in this area. Only a few applications of factor analytic method and the subsequent development of tests of primary mental abilities has been possible as a consequence of theoretical abilities. The information at present is sketchy.

A series of studies of young adults of average intelligence indicates that at least 40 different factors are needed to account for difference in intellectual ability. A different number of factors or mutually different factors may be necessary to account for the intellectual abilities of average adults and children. In addition to the difficulties of interpretation there are the problems of choice of type of factor analysis and choice of criterion for the significance of factors (see W. J. TELLETT *et al.*).

Heuristics The study (the ment) processes involved in problem solving. The various stages in the process of solving a problem for which there is no immediate solution appear to be as follows

I tally the i di otual mu t e mpreh d the  
natu e of th pr blem The gestalt p y holog t  
argue f r th imp tance f th first tage t  
th y belie e that the manner in whi h a p blem i  
e wll dete mine t le i n part th likeli  
hood f att i g a ucces f ul t n

The second stage met me called the preparation stage devoted to training formation which appears to be the final solution. This is a mutual stage since if the individual establishes an inappropriate behavior he may reject a learning environment which is in fact relevant to his information system. During this stage the problem solver tries to examine all the relevant information and its implications. The complexity of the hypothesis is itself added to all forms to which may be relevant.

The third stage is sometimes called the incubation stage. It is characterized by the term nation of a new idea. The desired solution and the stage of the idea to other matters. It is usually described as a period of hopeful waiting for a light. Successful problems may fall within a period of preparation. It is to the problem be a the problem. The added appropriate information and guidance. The so-called incubation period.

The first time when the problem I encountered  
the solution and my head it is a fine  
called night

Clearly the problem of problem solving depends upon many factors as well as imagination.

theoretical models offered by psychologists numerous nonpsychologists have contributed to the literature on the nature of the problem solving processes. Some have suggested the name of heuristics for this field.

**Research in problem solving** Problem solving in the restricted sense described above has been studied in human and infrahuman animals. Some of the earliest research on animals dealt with the behavior of cats escaping from an enclosure, rats solving a double alternation problem, and primates discovering the use of tools. Considerable controversy developed over the question of whether the behavior displayed by animals represented trial and error learning or insight. Although this issue probably was not settled to everyone's satisfaction, current research generally deals with other questions.

One major research program was concerned with the tool using ability of anthropoid apes. The animals had to discover how to use a stick as a rake to pull in foodstuffs placed outside their cages. These studies focused attention on the visual perceptual conditions which affected such problem solving.

Analogous experiments indicate that perceptual variables are also effective in modifying the problem solving abilities of human subjects. One series of studies found that the subjects, college students, were more likely to solve a construction type problem if they had had prior experience with similar problems. This was especially true if they were permitted to view this previous construction while they worked on the new problem.

Trouble shooting of equipment has been studied particularly from the standpoint of decision making about probable sources of malfunction. In one series of studies the subjects were given modified circuit diagrams and a display of symptoms, the problem being to discover the malfunctioning component as efficiently as possible. There is considerable evidence that the ability to trouble shoot can be learned.

Several studies in human problem solving have dealt with a phenomenon called functional fixedness. Comparable behavior on verbal or numerical problems has been called set or Einstellung. Functional fixedness is defined as the inability to see alternative uses for a tool or object. In one laboratory experiment for example a subject is instructed to make a construction using a matchbox and several other objects. If the subject is given each of the objects separately, he is more likely to succeed than if the objects are placed in the matchbox. In the latter condition the subject may fixate upon the container application of the box and ignore its other uses.

**Concept formation** Concept formation, sometimes called concept identification or concept attainment, is the process whereby an organism according to some self-generated principle classifies as similar two or more stimuli which are objectively dissimilar. Some of the ways in which a dog and a

cat are similar for example would be that they are alive, have four feet and have fur. Each would represent different conceptual classes which could be generated by an observer. Concept formation is important in the general field of problem solving because the problem to be solved may simply be the correct classification of stimuli for example which mushroom are edible or which control knob shapes are most desirable. A somewhat more complex application of concept identification in problem solving is seen when the problem solver must decide whether the tentative solution he has attained is actually a member of the class of acceptable solutions.

Three types of concepts can be differentiated in terms of the principle which must be generated by the observer. For conjunctive concepts all the members of a class have something in common, dogs, cats, and horses are all quadrupeds because they all have four legs. For disjunctive concepts the class membership is not determined by one or more common elements. The governing principle is that the class members have either one attribute or another or both. Several different substances can produce a rash and still be chemically unrelated. For probabilistic concepts possession of an attribute is not a guarantee that the stimulus is a member of a class, being depressed may indicate a serious illness but with low probability. A persistent depression along with feeling of persecution and frequent angry outbursts more probably indicates the presence of serious illness but still there is no certainty.

In order to make a decision concerning class membership the observer must receive information about the stimulus to be classified. Information which is necessary to make the correct classification is called relevant information. Information which is not necessary to make a correct classification is called irrelevant information. It is analogous to noise in a communication system and may or may not appear randomly. If the irrelevant information appears randomly it will be a considerable hindrance in arriving at the correct concept. As the amount of irrelevant information increases linearly the difficulty of arriving at the correct solution increases at a positively accelerated rate since the number of possible combinations of attributes defining the concept increases exponentially.

Most research in concept formation has involved the use of pictures or geometric form as stimuli with either a motor or verbal response. Recently a set of verbal stimuli in the form of nouns has been cataloged in terms of the frequency of particular sense impressions elicited by the word. This material is gaining considerable use and may provide a breakthrough in the problem of identifying the relationship between problem solving and language (see VERBAL LEARNING).

Another kind of concept formation which has been widely studied in animals is called learning to set. This process, sometimes called learning to-

Among all the lineages of mammal le-  
phants are most closely related probably to a  
co (Cenac) and to the other tapirid group  
(Petalodonta) See PERIODACTYLID FOSSILS  
SIRE 14 FOSSILS {RE}

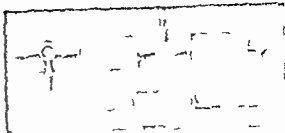
### Procellariiformes

A number of oceanic bird characteristics are listed by title like the penning well fed etc plumage  
then the peculiar many odor and compound  
ray h th f th bill I chided fam li are Diomed  
fulm r her wat r ) Hydr b ud = ( t rm pet  
r l l a d Pel c u id dae (d ving petrel ) The or  
d en mp es ext mes = re pa alleed only  
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**process control**

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T have a rational design procedure for process control systems that need a system that estimates the difference between an input and the measured output (dependent variables) of the control loop (dependent variable). The difference equation may be linear or nonlinear. If they are linear, it is possible to express the process characteristics implicitly by a transfer function which is used to derive the required controller transfer function by the standard method used in feedback control system. The reduction of the theory of CONTROL SYSTEMS

The more universal application of the term process control refers to the control of each of the processes of the many variables which affect its progress. The latter include among them such as the variable atmospheric temperature, liquid level, flow rates, age, etc. In a process, the quality may be automatically controlled as a by-product so that the main process is kept in a state of equilibrium. See CHEMICAL PROCESS CONTROL. PRESSURE CONTROL. AUTOMATIC TEMPERATURE CONTROL. AUTOCLAVE.

and creative handling of the information See  
LEARNING THEORIES MEMORY [E J A]

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graph 58 no 270 1945 W Kohler *The Mentality*  
of Apes 1926 M Wertheimer *Productive Think*  
ing 1945

## Proboscidea

An order of mammals including the elephants and their allies Proboscidea first appeared in the Eocene as small pig-sized creatures the moeritheres and during the remainder of the Tertiary the stock underwent an extensive and very complex evolution. At one time or another proboscidea lived on all continents except Australia. Two main lines of evolution are evident the dinotheres and the elephantoids. The dinotheres were characterized by peculiarities of the skull and dentition. The lower jaw bore a pair of heavy tusks that curved downward and backward. The elephantoids are divided into three families. In the long-jawed mastodons typified by *Gomphotherium* the lower jaw was much elongated and there were tusks in both upper and lower jaw. The short-jawed mastodons which lacked tusks in the lower jaw include some of the best known fossil vertebrates. The true elephants characterized by very high cheek teeth include the mammoths and modern elephants. See EUTHYRIA PROBOSCIDEA FOSSILS [P D D]

## Proboscidea fossils

Proboscidea probably originated in Africa and spread to all continents except Australia. Like their few living descendants ancient proboscidea were large plant-eating quadrupedal mammals that walked on pillarlike legs. All except possibly the earliest known form in the Eocene deposits of Egypt *Moeritherium* had an elongate proboscis (the trunk). They also had upper and sometimes lower tusks that were enlarged second incisors. Fossil forms are classified chiefly by shape of the jaws and teeth including the tusks and by the character of enamel configuration in all the teeth.

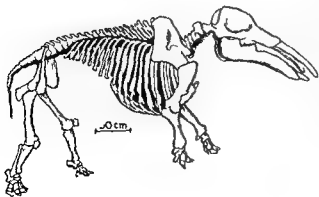


Fig 1 Skeleton of a Pliocene long-jawed mastodon *Gomphotherium* (After H O Bohr 1942)

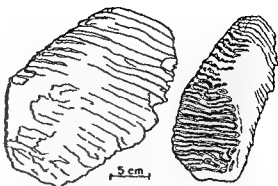


Fig 2 Side and occlusal view of the upper third molar of a Pleistocene mammoth from Illinois (After H O Bohr 1942)

The tapir-sized *Moeritherium* shows many resemblances to the phenacodonts in the order Condylarthra and indicates that proboscidea probably came from phenacodonts. This evolutionary conversion probably happened in early Eocene time. See CONDYLARTHA.

Certain peculiar proboscidea the Deinotherioidea have the anterior part of their lower jaws abruptly downturned. Deinotheres lived in Eurasia and Africa from Miocene into Pleistocene time. Another group the Mastodontoidea (Fig 1) includes a great array of forms of the Miocene through Pleistocene in North America, Eurasia and Africa and the Pleistocene in South America. Mastodons usually had low-crowned cheek teeth with tooth cusps arranged into transverse lobes (at right angles with the front to rear axis of the jaw). Some mastodons (*Phiomia*, *Gomphotherium*, *Tetralophodon* and others) had elongate lower jaw. Their lower tusks extended forward and probably served as forks to uproot clumps of vegetation upon which these animals fed. Long-jawed mastodons like *Platybelodon* and *Amebelodon* had flattened lower tusks that may have served as hovels to scoop up masses of soft water plants. Another group of mastodons *Anancus*, *Stegomastodon*, *Mammuth* and others were short-jawed and had no lower tusks. Stegodonts generally intermediate between mastodons and elephants had elongate low-crowned molars crowned with numerous transverse crests.

The family Elephantidae (true elephants) had short lower jaws without tusks and their high-crowned cheek teeth had the enamel dentine and cement arranged into transverse plates. This is interpreted as an evolutionary adaptation that enabled the teeth to withstand a greater amount of wear resulting from a diet of abrasive vegetation such as dusty grass and tough herbs. The elephant family includes mammoths (Fig 2). During the Pleistocene mammoths traveled to all the continents except Australia and South America. The famous woolly mammoth *Mammuthus primigenius* is well known from carcasses found in the frozen mantle rock of northern USSR and Alaska.



Fig. 3 Typ i N rth Am ca t e fog th g  
tree frog Hyl e a (i ft) a d th g y tre fog  
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In evaluating or designing a process control system consideration is given to start up characteristics stability steady state characteristics transient response insensitivity to disturbances and other factors. Most processes require a start up period during which they progress from a state of quiescence to an active state. In a chemical process temperature flow pressure speed valve settings and other factors must be brought up to the condition or equilibrium that permits the chemical reaction to start. In missile control a missile just fired from the ground requires a period of acceleration during which its properties are rapidly changing until it reaches a speed high enough to permit normal control procedures to be effective. Satisfying these initial requirements automatically is probably the most difficult part of process control design because the governing relationships are time variant or nonlinear. The other design considerations are similar to those encountered in all feedback control systems and are handled in the same manner. [JRR]

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## Procoela

A suborder of the order Salientia characterized by a procoelous vertebral column in which each vertebra is concave anteriorly and convex posteriorly and with a free coccyx articulating by a double condyle. This suborder commonly includes five families of frogs: Leptodactylidae, Bufonidae, Atelopodidae, Hylidae and Centrolenidae. The families Dendrobatidae and Pseudidae also are sometimes recognized.

**Leptodactylidae** The leptodactylid frogs are most abundant in number of genera and species in the American tropics and Australia with a very few species found as far north as the southwestern United States and New Guinea. A single genus in South Africa possibly belongs to this family. There are over 40 genera of leptodactylids with more



Fig. 1 (a) *Oreophryella melchiorii* an atelopodid (b) *Eleosaurus* a leptodactylid (c) *Brachycephalus* an atelopodid (From G. K. N. B. The Biology of the Amphibia Dove 1954)



Fig. 2 The Paumotu frog *Dendrobates auratus* (American Museum of Natural History photograph)

than 500 species over 200 are in the genus *Eleutherodactylus* alone. Evolutionary lines within the family have undergone extensive adaptive radiation so that one or another species lives in almost every fashion known to frogs. Species with similar habits are often similar in appearance too so that leptodactylid frogs are often almost indistinguishable externally from a variety of species of other families.

**Bufonidae** Members of the large genus *Bufo* the true toads are native to virtually every place in the world where frogs live except the Australian region. The other four genera of the Bufonidae are found in Africa and the Malay region. The members are of little numerical importance but one of them *Nectophrynoides* of East Africa is of interest in being the only oviparous frog. All bufonids lack teeth and the true toads of the genus *Bufo* are for the most part rather warty short legged terrestrial animals that enter the water only during the breeding season.

**Atelopodidae** The Atelopodidae or Brachycephalidae is a relatively small family with 10 genera and about 90 species in South and Central America. Two genera are in West Africa and another in the Malay region may belong in the family. Many of the atelopodids are small brilliantly colored frogs. Members of the genus *Dendrobates* (Fig. 2) produce a skin secretion used by South American natives to poison arrows.

**Hylidae** The Hylidae or tree frog (Fig. 3) is one of the larger amphibian families with over 500 species known. The majority of the about 350 species belong to the genus *Hyla* which is found in both eastern and western hemisphere. Many of the Hylidae are adapted to arboreal life having expanded digital disks that facilitate climbing but not a few have adopted other modes of existence and lead terrestrial aquatic or even underwater life.

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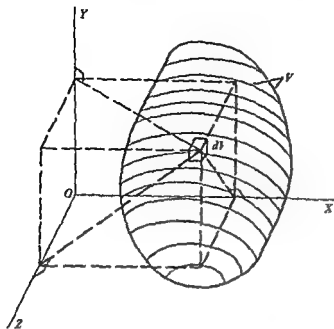


Fig 2 Product of inertia of a volume

symmetrical about a  $YZ$  plane  $I_{XX} = I_{YY} = 0$   
See MOMENT OF INERTIA [NSF]

## Production engineering

The planning and control of the mechanical means of changing the shape condition and relationship of materials within industry toward greater effectiveness and value. Production engineering is a relatively new term applied to some aspects of planning and control of manufacturing. It is a service function to the production department.

As industry and technology evolve to greater levels of sophistication, complexity and specialization, the broad area of figuring out what to do becomes more involved and at the same time better understood. By this process, some of what had been originally performed by either the production department or the industrial engineer becomes a separate activity with its own background of knowledge, principles and techniques.

**Planning and purpose.** Production engineering as a planning activity takes place between product design and the planning of the overall manufacturing process. Overall manufacturing planning is usually considered within the profession of industrial engineering. But in attitudes of greater specialization, production engineering may be considered a separate profession closely allied to industrial engineering.

The purpose of production engineering is to refine and adjust the design of the product (preferably with the product designer) to the problems involved in its proposed manufacture and conversion to solve certain problems, mainly mechanical, such as those involved in processing tools, die and new or special equipment necessary to manufacture the product efficiently and according to the established specifications.

**Position in the organization.** Product design, production engineering and industrial engineering

overlap variously according to the situation, policy and organization. The techniques of production engineering are mainly in the field of mechanical engineering but some are closely related in concept and performance to if not directly derived from industrial engineering.

Intelligent activity in production engineering requires a comprehensive understanding of both the intention and meaning of the product design and the means and principles of industrial engineering. The production engineer often acts as liaison between product design and industrial engineering.

The product design department specifies what is wanted, usually making only a general statement of how such specifications are to be met. The particular means are the problem of the production engineer. Product design takes into consideration performance, life, safety and other functional requirements, usually fully testing models of various types for the features. In many products, appearance and other sensory qualities have been added. The cost must be maintained.

**Initial phase.** After studying the overall product, the product engineer examines every detail of each operation for forming each piece. Various lines of inquiry are followed: Is the specific shape the most economical in material, labor and equipment? Is it compatible with either present or obtainable equipment and know-how? Are components readily obtainable if they are to be purchased?

Usually the product designer has valid reasons for each detail, but he may not know of the benefits of alternate means, so the production engineer may often make diplomatic inquiry into any detail that appears difficult, expensive or superfluous. Prudent organizations avoid the condition in which the production engineer accepts the design specification as absolute and final and the opposite where the production engineering staff can make any changes at all to suit easier processes or methods. There is usually a common sense ground in between that can be found.

The first operations in production engineering are to examine every detail in relation to its feasibility and economy with respect to the peculiar situation. The first question most likely to arise is whether to manufacture the part or purchase it. This is not always an easy question to answer. It depends upon many factors: from overall utilization of facilities and labor to company policy. For instance, many industries have expanded by vertical diversification into being their own suppliers. Like much of production engineering, the answer to this lies with the policy of top management and their vision of where they are going in the light of competition, economics, technology and cultural change. Peculiarly here, production engineering must cooperate with sales, finance and other basic research.

**Development of overall production.** The first work is analytical inquiry. After most of the details

the present Bureau of Standard Professional  
 Institutes, leading manufacturers (see DESIGN  
 574 RD)

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It is a highly manufacturable and not necessarily a standard product. Standardized parts and components can be embedded in a wide range of different combinations. Current models of popular and mobile off-road machinery for example that the manufacturer could hardly produce a third of the model all the time.

Production equipment. Machine with electrically  
driven hopper or riser for the casting  
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a precise report by fitting it with the proper tool and necessary equipment (S. J. FIXTURE AND DIE DESIGN)

**Selection of equipment** The greatest influence on the selection of equipment is dictated by the production method. The degree of automation is nearly always a guide within a given production method.

Much equipment, especially that not directly used in foreign or airmailing operations, is common to many projects in the field. In selecting the equipment on a rotational basis, the following factors

1. Demand for the product short or long term  
2. Permanency of the product likely to remain the same or will technological change force substitution in demand?

3. Risk Management &amp; Insurance

† Competitive advantage = 1 advantage established by force of equipment

5 Integration with other available equipment

6 Suitability of equipment in relation to the product

7 Effect on quality of the product

8 Quality and availability of labor to operate equipment

9. Cost of generating and maintaining the equipment

### III Cost source and availability of capital

To solve the fitting factors  $\rho$  and  $\sigma$  in order to estimate the decision for the second file can be obtained by evaluating fact

A piece of equipment may be sold from a dealer as a complete system or may be built specifically for the job. To decide specifically which apparatus is appropriate to add is a matter of mutual benefit.

<sup>2</sup> The of m r q antiv of the p od ct to be man f tu ed

3 The m n hour equ r d

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5 The adaptability of modern machines

6 The total direct charges of the special equipment compared with standard equipment

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engineering strives to use advance technology wherever it provides an economic advantage See INDUSTRIAL ENGINEERING JIG FIXTURE AND DIE DESIGN PILOT PRODUCTION PRODUCT DESIGN PRODUCTION METHODS [RIF]

## Production methods

Basically all production processes and methods can be classified as one of two types Analytic industrial processes break down a given material into several products as in an ore reducing plant Synthetic processes create one product from several different materials as in a blast furnace or an automobile assembly plant Processes may be a combination analytic synthetic (wood furniture factory) or synthetic analytic (feed mill)

Industry frequently classifies processes into those that (1) change the shape called forming including cutting molding bending disolving machining (2) change the chemical or internal characteristics called treating including mixing blending heat treating refining (3) change the external surface called finishing including rinsing coating drying painting and (4) add other pieces called assembling including attaching joining packaging fitting and fastening as in erecting a new building or pinning a dress pattern to a piece of cloth

Most industries use a combination of at least two basic processes In fact some processes can be placed logically in more than one class for example metal plating

Processes have also been classified into continuous or process type operations as in an oil refinery and intermittent (or repetitive) or manufacturing type operations

Almost all production processes or methods change the form or condition of some material or add or deduct other materials aided by men and/or machinery with the end objective being a product which has greater utility by nature of its form or characteristics than the initial material

The end product and the start material are of fundamental importance Together these are termed the product material factor this factor is the chief influencing feature in the choice of production methods A change in the end product or in the characteristics of the start material may cause or allow significant changes in the production processes or methods

**Design and specifications** Design is inherent in the production of any product even if it is not formally recognized and recorded in prints photos or other specifications But generally product designs are established prior to production and are frequently the result of several years of research experiment, and development

Design of products generally calls for specialists of various kinds scientific engineering stylist or artistic market research or public relations and production engineers or manufacturing planners The more the specialists (together with the sales purchasing production and financial departments)

can integrate their views and ideas the more effective will be the product's design for the overall company position

Product designs may take several forms formulae in chemical plants blends in food products and performance standards or drawings and specifications in manufacturing plants (see PRODUCT DESIGN)

The term production design is frequently referred to today as that design which has been engineered for ease and economy of production It is much more than a design which merely requires functioning of the product it involves refinements and modification of functional design based on the processes production equipment and personnel planned to produce the item

The design engineer specifies what is to be made and how well it is to be made The specifications take the form of (1) parts or materials lists describing the elements (2) required characteristics or dimensions (3) drawings photos blueprints or models and (4) performance of finished product or test specifications These are aimed at describing the product and its elements that the equipment to produce it can be readily planned the purchased materials can be correctly obtained and the components can be made and assembled according to how the product has been engineered

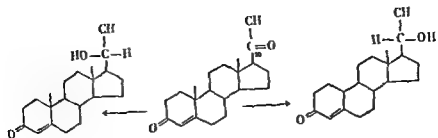
Other specifications pertain to the manufacturing process and the methods Process specifications are set by process engineers (as distinguished from product engineers) and cover just how processes are to be controlled Methods instruction is generally set by methods engineers and covers how work area and machinery are to be arranged

Product specifications usually include tolerances because nothing can be made exactly Another allowance is a permissible variation (see PRODUCTION ENGINEERING)

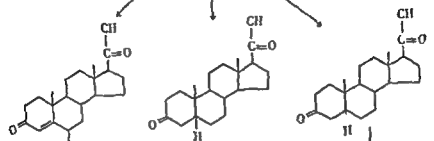
**Standard materials and parts** While most products require different components and even the same products require many variations ranges and preferred choices of product dimensions or other characteristics can be established Whenever materials and parts can be graded classified or otherwise standardized great savings in time and cost result for designers purchasers producers and users

For example standard electrical current horsepower and dimension for electric motors allow the engineer to detail his overall machine readily the buyer to specify and buy by numbers and code the producer to tool up for substantial quantities of standard sizes and the user of the machine to obtain a replacement quickly should the original motor burn out

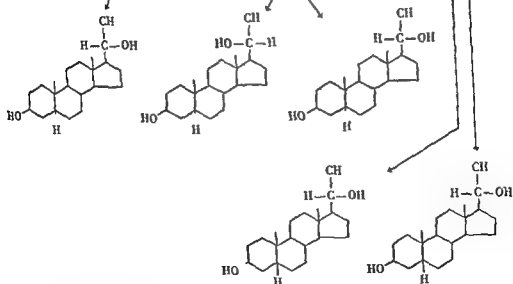
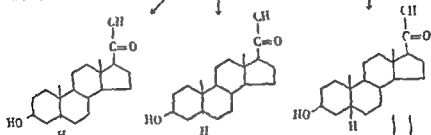
Standards have been established for practically all materials from lubricating oil to paper from lumber to metallurgical specifications of sand and iron Standard gages of sheet metal sizes of screws and nuts and diameters of bearings are examples of standard parts we take for granted every day The standards are set by industry associations



Progesterone



6(β) Hydroxyprogesterone



Estrone, Estradiol, Estradiol

Chemical structures of steroid hormones: Progesterone, Androstenedione, Testosterone, Dihydroepiandrosterone, Androstenediol, Testosterone, 6(β) Hydroxyprogesterone, 6(β) Hydroxyandrostenedione, 6(β) Hydroxyandrostenediol, 6(β) Hydroxytestosterone, Estrone, Estradiol, Estradiol.

bring about a fair return on the money invested in that equipment. This criteria alone motivated the individuals who have foregone the opportunity of spending this money in other way so as to provide funds for the purchase of production equipment.

**Supporting services.** In addition to the machinery equipment and tools used for production every factory plant or mill must have certain supporting services. These take various forms.

Services dealing with materials or product include (1) production control such as planning scheduling machine loading dispatching and recording (2) material control including requisitioning receiving storing transporting inventorying (3) quality control which includes quality levels inspection complaints specifications release (4) waste control dealing with rejects salvage scrap or rework and (5) warehousing and shipping.

Services relating to machinery and equipment include (1) maintenance both preventive and repairs and overhaul (2) tool storage and tool conditioning (3) auxiliary or utility lines such as water electricity heating and ventilating compressed air or vacuum lubricating or cutting oil gas exhaust fuel drains sewage and the like.

Services relating to personnel include (1) offices (2) restrooms lockers showers (3) eating facilities (4) parking lots and access ways (5) time clocks drinking fountains first aid bulletin boards telephones and so on.

Most supporting services are necessary for a modern production facility. They must be planned into the facility and integrated with the materials machinery men and the building structure. Effective arrangements and organization of these supporting facilities often account for the efficiency of the production methods established. As a result they should not be overlooked when new or revised production methods are being planned (see PLANT FACILITIES).

[R.M.]

## Production planning

Two objectives of the manufacturing division of a business are to produce the company's products promptly and profitably. To attain these objectives requires efficient use of manpower machines and materials. This in turn requires coordinating the activities of each division of the company. This is done by determining the required and the available capacities and preparing a plan for matching them.

In many companies the planning is assigned to a production planning department where personnel also follow progress and adjust the plans to compensate for the differences between planned and actual performance. Much of this department's work is gathering processing distributing and storing information.

Planning production from start to finish includes scheduling the progress of new products forecasting demand keeping records of available quantities of material preparing schedules reconciling customer demands inventory balances and pro-

ducting loading fees between plant companies

Comp achieving by the processes and

One is showing how much and having companies use interval requirements and the final schedules are. Other companies found to be affected. See GANTT.

**Bibliography.** J. and Inventory Control Text and

## Progesterone

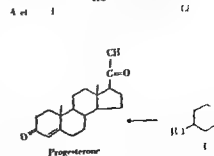
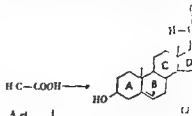
A steroid hormone and placenta. The biological role in the cycle and in the maintenance of these functions the testis and adrenal intermediate in the steroids and the corticoids.

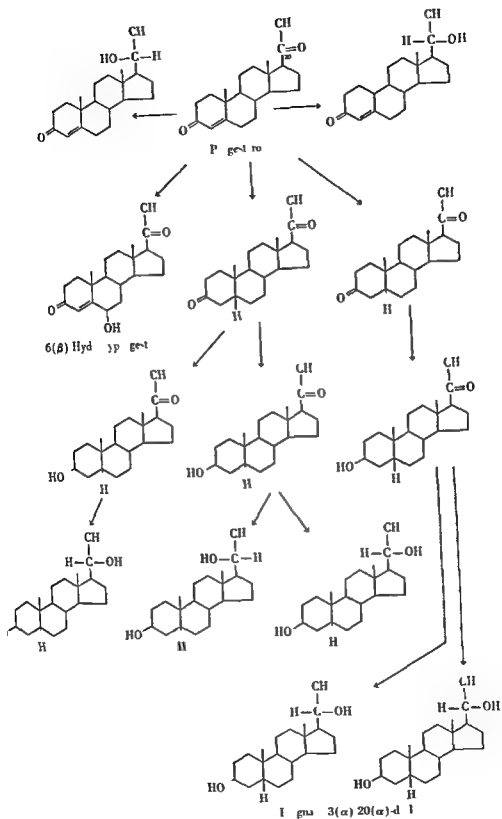
The biosynthetic pathway common to all of the steroids involves

Acetate → Cholesterol →

Pregnen

The blood contains in the 20(α) and 20(β) reduced have reduced biological activity.





tabol m of p g te	les d t	t m t n th rie f l al imp t nc
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t m p o r t a t m t a b o l t h m d t d e		[R I D]



bring about a fair return on the money invested in that equipment. This criteria alone motivated the individuals who have foregone the opportunity of spending this money in other ways so as to provide funds for the purchase of production equipment.

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duction capacities issuing realistic schedule loading machines dispatching expediting and feeding back or adjusting the next production period's schedule to compensate for the difference between planned and actual performance in the current period. Someone does each part of this work formally or informally in most manufacturing companies.

Company objectives may shift rapidly from achieving maximum output to shipping each order by the promised date to minimizing operating expenses and the inventory investment.

One essential in production planning is knowing how much time to allow between starting work and having a product ready to deliver. Some companies use a master schedule which shows the interval required between the first purchase order and the final shipment of the product. Master schedules are useful but difficult to keep up to date. Other companies prefer to use lead times they have found to be safe for each material part and product. See GANTT CHART INDUSTRIAL CONTROL.

[L F C]

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## Progesterone

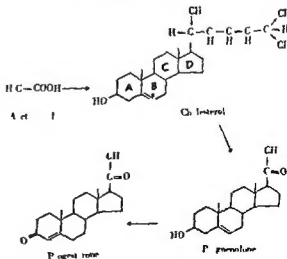
A steroid hormone produced in the corpus luteum and placenta. The hormone has an important physiological role in the luteal phase of the menstrual cycle and in the maintenance of pregnancy. In addition to these functions progesterone produced in the testis and adrenals occupies a key role as an intermediate in the biosynthesis of androgens and the corticoids (adrenal cortex steroids).

The biosynthetic pathway to progesterone is common to all of the steroid producing tissues and involves

Acetate  $\rightarrow$  Cholesterol  $\rightarrow$

Pregnenolone  $\rightarrow$  Progesterone

The blood contains in addition to progesterone the  $20(\alpha)$  and  $20(\beta)$  reduced metabolites which have reduced biological activity.



$\Delta f(n) = f(n+1) - f(n)$  and performing the deduced summat

Example 1 The arithmetic progression (1)

$$\sum_{n=1}^v + b(n-1) = (a-b)n + \frac{1}{2}b(v+1) \\ = (-b)v + \frac{1}{2}b(v+1)$$

Example 2 The geometric progression (2)

$$\sum_{n=1}^v r^n = \frac{a-r^{v+1}}{-1} = \frac{r^v - 1}{r-1}$$

Example 3 The consecutive sequence

$$\sum_{n=1}^v c_n a = \frac{n(n-1/2)\alpha}{2 \times n \times 1/2 \alpha} \Big|_1^{v+1} \\ = \frac{(v+1/2)\alpha - n \times 1/2 \alpha}{1 \times 1/2 \alpha}$$

1. In order to multiply any  $P(n)$  of degree  $k$ ,  $P(n)$  may be predicted in terms of factorial powers  $n^{(k)}$  by Newton's theorem

$$P(n) = P(0) + \frac{\Delta P(0)}{1!} (n) + \frac{\Delta^2 P(0)}{2!} (n)(n-1) \\ + \frac{\Delta^3 P(0)}{3!} n(n-1)(n-2) + \dots$$

The difference  $f(n)$  when  $n=0$  is computed as Table 3

Table 2. A table of differences

$f(n)$	$\Delta f(n)$
0	constant
	$\frac{1}{2}n(n-1)$
	$\frac{1}{6}n(n-1)(n-2)$
	$\frac{1}{24}n(n-1)(n-2)(n-3)$
cos nx	$\frac{1}{2} \sin nx$
sin nx	$-\frac{1}{2} \cos nx$

Table 3. Sequence of differences

	0	1	2	3	
$f(n)$	0	1	8	7	$f'(0) = 0$
$\Delta f(n)$	1	7	19		$\Delta f(0) = 1$
$\Delta^2 f(n)$	6	12			$\Delta^2 f(0) = 6$
$\Delta^3 f(n)$	6				$\Delta^3 f(0)/3! = 1$

In Table 3  $P(n) = n$  and hence

$$n^2 = n^{(1)} + 3n^{(2)} + \frac{1}{2}n^{(3)} \\ \sum_{n=1}^v n^2 = \frac{1}{2}v(v+1)(v+2) = \frac{1}{6}v(v+1)(v+2)$$

Summation by parts

$$\Delta^{-1}[f(n) \Delta g(n)] = f(n)g(n) - \Delta^{-1}[f(n+1) \Delta g(n)]$$

is frequently useful in finding antidifferences. With  $g(n) = (-1)^n$ ,  $\Delta g(n) = (-1)^{n+1}$  then

$$\Delta^{-1}[(-1)^n f(n)] = (-1)^n f(n) - \Delta^{-1}[(-1)^{n+1} f(n+1)]$$

When  $P(n)$  is a polynomial of degree  $k$ ,  $\Delta^{k+1}P(n) = 0$  and thus the formula repeatedly applied will give

$$\Delta^{-k}[(-1)^n P(n)]$$

and hence the sum  $\sum_{n=1}^v (-1)^n P(n)$ . The following table permits the summation of all trinomial powers  $(-1)^n n^k$

$k$	$\Delta^{-k}[(-1)^n n^k]$
1	$\frac{1}{2}(-1)^n (n-1)$
2	$\frac{1}{6}(-1)^n n(n-1)$
3	$\frac{1}{24}(-1)^n (n-1)(n^2-1)$
4	$\frac{1}{120}(-1)^n n(n-1)(n^2-1)$
5	$\frac{1}{720}(-1)^n (n-1)(n-2)(n-3)(n-4)$

Summation by parts also gives antidifferences such as  $\Delta^{-1}[P(n)]$ . The  $\Delta(n) = p(n-p)$  where  $p = 1/(-1)$ . See SERIES [LBR] B. B. G. P. H. L. M. V. L. Th. M. P. n. The C. I. C. I. S. F. U. D. J. 1933

## Progression (mathematics)

Ordered countable sets of numbers  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots$  not necessarily all different. In general such sets are called *sequence* whereas the term *progression* is usually confined to the special types: the arithmetic in which the difference  $x_k - x_{k-1}$  between successive terms is constant; the geometric in which the ratio  $x_k/x_{k-1}$  is constant; and the harmonic in which the reciprocals of the terms are in arithmetic progression.

**Arithmetic progressions** If the first term is  $a$  and the common difference  $b$

$$\begin{aligned}x_1 &= a, \quad x_2 = a + b, \quad x_3 = a + 2b \\x_n &= a + (n-1)b\end{aligned}\quad (1)$$

In the sum of  $n$  terms  $S_n$  two terms equidistant from the ends always have the same sum  $x_1 + x_n$  hence  $2S_n = n(x_1 + x_n)$  and

$$S_n = n \frac{x_1 + x_n}{2} = n \left( a + \frac{n-1}{2} b \right)$$

If  $x_1, x_2, x_3$  are in arithmetic progression  $x_2 = (x_1 + x_3)/2$  is called the arithmetic mean of  $x_1$  and  $x_3$ .

**Geometric progressions** If the first term is  $a$  and the common ratio  $r$

$$\begin{aligned}x_1 &= a, \quad x_2 = ar, \quad x_3 = ar^2 \\x_n &= ar^{n-1}\end{aligned}\quad (2)$$

Excluding the case  $r = 1$  (when all terms are the same) the sum  $S_n$  of  $n$  terms satisfies  $S_n - rS_n = a - ar^n$  hence

$$S_n = a \frac{1-r^n}{1-r}$$

If  $|r| < 1$ ,  $r^n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  hence the sum of the infinite geometric series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} = \frac{a}{1-r} \quad |r| < 1$$

If  $x_1, x_2, x_3$  are in geometric progression  $x_2 = \sqrt{x_1 x_3}$  is called the geometric mean of  $x_1$  and  $x_3$ . Since

$$(\sqrt{x_1} - \sqrt{x_3})^2 = x_1 + x_3 - 2\sqrt{x_1 x_3} \geq 0$$

$$\text{and} \quad \frac{x_1 + x_3}{2} \geq \sqrt{x_1 x_3}$$

the arithmetic mean of two unequal positive numbers exceeds their geometric mean.

The arithmetic mean  $A$  and the geometric mean  $G$  of  $n$  positive numbers are defined as

$$A = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n}{n} \quad \text{and} \quad G = \sqrt[n]{x_1 x_2 \dots x_n}$$

also  $A \geq G$ .

**Harmonic progression** The reciprocal of the sequence (1) form a harmonic progression. There is no compact expression for the sum of  $n$  terms.

If  $x_1, x_2, x_3$  are in harmonic progression

$$x_2 = \frac{2x_1 x_3}{x_1 + x_3}$$

is called their harmonic mean.

**Sum sequence** A general method of summing a sequence of  $n$  terms depends upon a theorem in the difference calculus which is the analogue of the fundamental theorem of the differential calculus.

If  $x = f(n)$  is defined for  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  the difference  $\Delta f(n)$  is defined as

$$\Delta f(n) = f(n+1) - f(n)$$

$\Delta$  is a linear operator that is

$$\Delta(agf(n) + bg(n)) = a\Delta f(n) + b\Delta g(n)$$

In the difference calculus the factorial powers  $n^{(k)}$  for integral  $k$  are defined by

$$n^{(k)} = \begin{cases} n!/(n-k)! & k \leq n \\ n! & k = n \\ 0 & k > n \end{cases}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}n^{(k)} &= n(n-1)(n-2)\dots(n-k+1) \quad 0 < k \leq n \\ n^{(-k)} &= \frac{1}{(n+1)(n+2)\dots(n+k)} \quad k > 0\end{aligned}$$

In particular

$$n^{(0)} = 1, \quad n^{(-1)} = n, \quad n^{(1)} = 1(n+1)$$

Moreover  $n^{(k)}$  satisfies the functional equation

$$n^{(k)} - (n-k)^{(k)} = n^{(k-1)} \quad (n-k)^{(k)} = n^{(k+k)}$$

The last two entries of Table 1 follow from

$$\Delta e^x = (e - 1)e^x = e^x \ln e = e^x$$

on taking real and imaginary part.

If  $\Delta f(n) = f(n+1) - f(n)$  is called the antidiifference of  $f(n)$  and written  $\Delta^{-1} f(n)$ . The antidiifferences of  $f(n)$  differ at most by a constant ( $r$  is a periodic function of period 1 if  $f(n) = f(x)$  of a continuous variable). Table 1 implies the table of antidiifferences (Table 2).

Just as antiderivatives are used to compute definite integrals, antidiifferences are used to compute definite sums.

$$\sum_{n=p}^q f(n) = \Delta^{-1} f(n) \Big|_p^{q+1} = F(q+1) - F(p)$$

The proof is immediate on replacing  $f(n)$  by

Table 1. Difference

$f(n)$	$\Delta f(n)$
$e^{nx}$	$(e^x - 1)e^{nx}$
$a^n$	$(a - 1)a^n$
$x^n$	$n x^{n-1}$
$x^{(k)}$	$k x^{(k-1)}$
$x^{(-k)}$	$-x^{(-k)}$

